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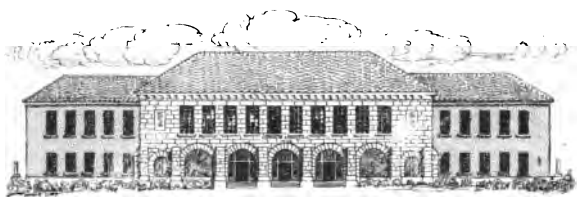
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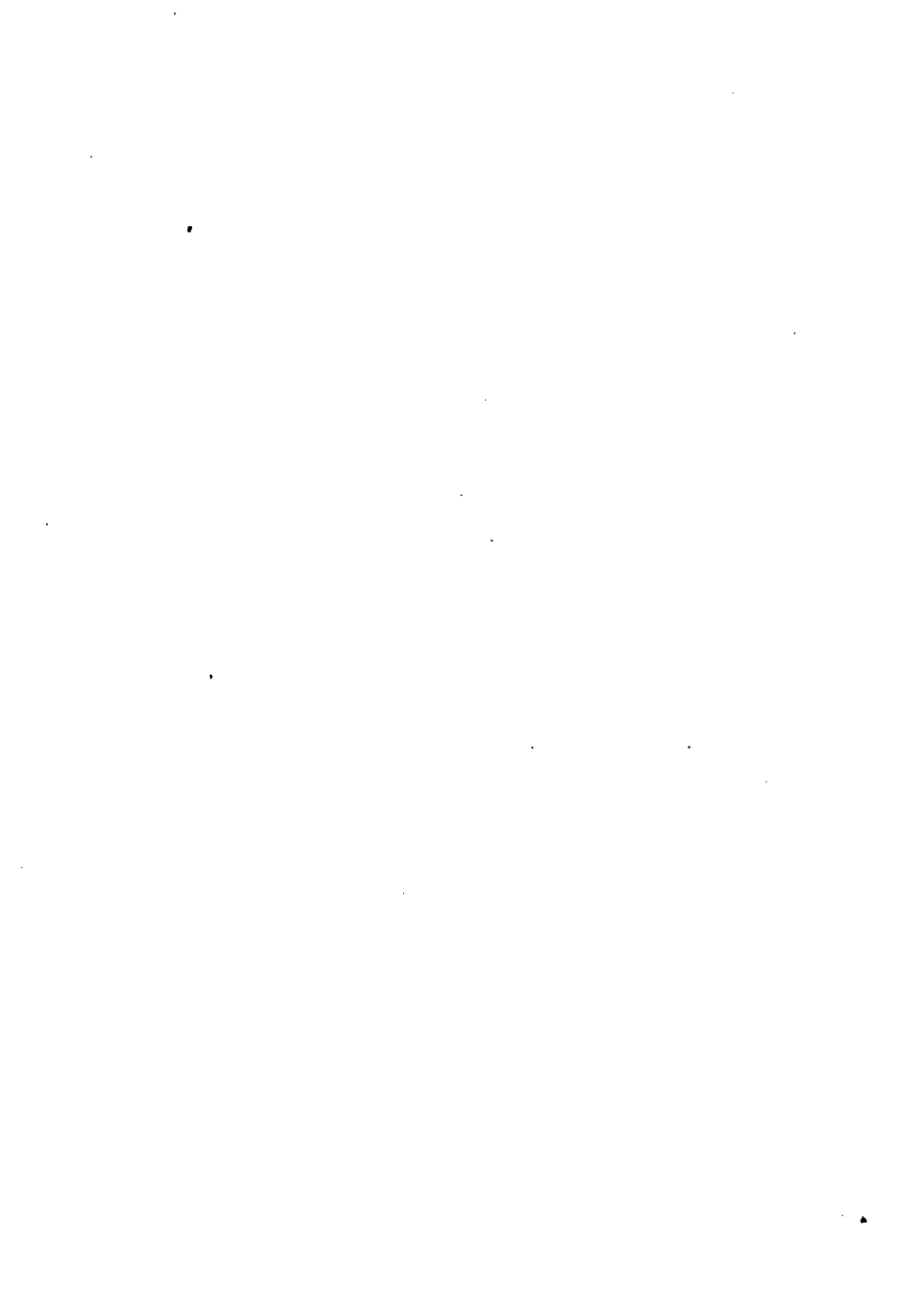
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FIRST LESSONS

IN

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

AND

COMPOSITION.

BY

JUDSON PERRY WELSH, A. M., PH. D.,

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PREFACE.

THE object of this little book is to lead pupils by easy steps to a careful, correct, and ready use of English. There are many technicalities in English that need to be taught to children early, —before incorrect or careless habits are formed. How to do this systematically and at the same time simply, has been the important problem for teachers to solve.

The outcry a few years ago against the mechanical teaching of English grammar did some harm, because it was taken up by the thoughtless and directed against the subject instead of against the books and methods.

At that time came a loud call for language lessons. This call also was taken up by those ever ready to get on the popular side, and we had such a flood of language lessons, language books, and language teaching as was never before seen.

Story-writing was the easiest, and therefore the chief way the fever worked itself off. Many excellent exercises were devised, and compiled in books, but without system. Language work seemed to lead to no end. Exercises had almost no connection with one another. One could begin as well in the middle or end of a text-book as at the beginning, and get about as good results going one way as the other. Technicalities were religiously avoided.

It was this condition of language teaching that led the author first to consider the production of a primary grammar.

It was with a desire to show that the great mass of material called grammar, was not grammar, and that the English language *really does have a grammar*, that led him to write the advanced work entitled "A Practical English Grammar." It is with much the same feeling that he has again ventured into the dangerous field of authorship.

He believes that technicalities should not be avoided. They are important, or they would not exist. Children begin to learn the technicalities that belong to many branches of learning almost as soon as they learn anything; and with what pride and eagerness they strive to show their technical knowledge of any subject all are aware. Why, then (since language is perhaps the most important means of their intellectual development, as it becomes in after years the most important element of their usefulness, influence, and success), should the technicalities of their language be kept from them so studiously?

An uninteresting repetition of mechanical instruction, imagining technicalities that do not exist, giving them names and governing them by rules, after the fashion of dead and fully inflected languages, are of course to be avoided; but real technicalities, that occur in every-day use, should be studied—early and systematically. They should be incorporated into the child's written speech, as he, of his own accord and from the first, incorporates them into his oral language.

This is the only apology the author has to offer for inflicting upon his fellow-teachers another book.

J. P. WELSH.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,
Bloomsburg, Pa.,
June 1, 1896.

A TALK WITH THE TEACHER.

THE author would like to have a few words with you before you begin to use the contents of this book.

He would like to remind you first that a text-book is only a help, and is not intended to do the teaching for you. Your pupils may need much more or much less than this book contains. They may be too far advanced for it, or not far enough advanced for it. Your first duty, then, is to study your pupils and determine what they need. Then adapt the book to those needs and supplement it if necessary.

During the first three, or even four, years of a child's school life—that is, from six till nine or ten years old—his language work should grow out of his reading, science, and number work. Learning to read should constitute his chief occupation. In learning to read, as in learning to talk, he drinks in or absorbs much or little depending upon how he is taught, how he is interested, and how his mind develops.

In copying exercises, dictation exercises, descriptions, stories, written solutions, letter-writing, etc., all of which may be made to grow out of, or grow into his reading, there is abundant material for language work during these first years. No book should be necessary. The fact is, a book would probably be a hindrance to most teachers. For this period a book at most could only be a compilation of suggestions, many of which would be as likely to miss the mark as to hit it.

At the age of nine or ten, a pupil of average ability, who has been well taught, should be ready to take up the work of this book and make good progress. The matter contained in and suggested by the book, together with the supplementary language matter coming from his study of science, history, and geography, will give abundant work for the next two years, after which time he can begin his advanced course of study, as laid down in the author's advanced work on this subject.

THE AUTHOR.

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LESSON I.

A LESSON ABOUT WORDS.

MEN and women and boys and girls talk. They wish to let one another know what they desire or need, what they think, and how they feel. To do this they use words.

Words are frequently spoken, but sometimes they are written or printed. When other persons see our written words, or hear our spoken words, they know what thoughts we have, or how we feel.

Words are used in groups. At the end of each group we make a pause.

Some groups express a thought; as, *All birds fear foxes.*

Other groups express only part of a thought; as, *among the branches of a tree.*

Which of the following groups of words express a thought?

1. Three children sit by the wayside.
2. One of them is a girl.
3. On his knees.
4. One boy has dark hair.
5. A hat on his head.
6. All the children have bare feet.
7. One boy is talking.
8. The other children are listening.
9. Tied with a ribbon.

A group of words used to express a thought is called a sentence.*

How many of the foregoing groups are sentences?

Write a sentence about a dog.

Write a sentence about a frog.

Write a sentence about a butterfly.

Write one about a violet.

Write another about a pocket-knife.

Change the sentences you have written into spoken sentences.

Imagine you can hear what the boy in the picture is saying to his companions, and write five of his sentences.

* TO THE TEACHER.—In the author's opinion, *statement* should not be used for *sentence*. Children have no difficulty in learning and using the technical names. They learn technical terms that belong to other matters from the time they begin to talk. They don't first learn to call a certain implement a *digger*, and then afterward learn to call it a *spade*. Many of the attempts to make things easy for children are ridiculous. Avoid unnecessary technical terms, but do not use substitutions for those that are necessary.

LESSON II.

A LESSON ABOUT LANGUAGE.

THE many sentences we use in order to make one another understand our thoughts and feelings, make what is called **language**.

Perhaps you may think this a big word, a long word, and a word hard to spell. But if you try, you can easily learn to spell it, and pronounce it. You will see soon that it is a very important word and much used. Learn to spell it now.

People in different countries do not always use the same kind of language in expressing their thoughts ; so there are many kinds of language.

The language we use is called the **English language**, because it was first used by people who lived in England.

Many of these English people came to America, when America was first discovered. That is how it happened that the English language came to be used in our country.

What name is given to the language of the people who live in France ?

What is the name of the language used by the people of Germany ?

Of Spain ? Of Italy ? Of Russia ? Of China ?

Your teacher, your parents, or your schoolmates will answer any of these questions you cannot answer.

Children learn to talk in the language they hear their parents and playmates use. If your parents had always lived in France, and had used the French language, you would have learned that

language, too. Then you would be a young Frenchman, and would be talking and reading and writing sentences in French.

What language do you think you would be using, if you had always lived in Italy? In Spain? In Russia?

Let us see in how many ways we make known our thoughts to one another in our own language.

If you taste something very bitter, you could say in three ways that it was bitter :

1. By making a wry face.

Motions, gestures, frowns, nods, smiles, and other natural signs are frequently used by both men and animals.

This is called sign or gesture language.

2. By saying the word *bitter*.

This is called spoken language.

3. By writing the word *bitter*.

This is called written language.

Which of these three kinds of language do you use most?

How do dogs and other animals make us know their thoughts?

When cats, horses, cows, and other animals are angry, how do we find it out?

If you could not hear, and had never learned to talk, how would you make known your wishes?

See whether you can use all of these three ways to tell your teacher that you hear a noise on the play-ground.



LESSON III.

BEGINNING AND ENDING OF SENTENCES.

HERE are a number of sentences.

Read them.

Cats can be taught to do cute things this cat knows many funny tricks she can ring a bell for her dinner she can also jump through a hoop she can climb a ladder like a boy she enters the kitchen through a little swing door of her own she has learned to open this door for herself the door closes itself after her the name of this cat is Dido she belongs to Dick Billings.

Now read these sentences :

Cats can be taught to do cute things. This cat knows many funny tricks. She can ring a bell for her dinner. She can also jump through a hoop. She can climb a ladder like a boy. She enters the kitchen through a little swing door of her own. She has learned to

open this door for herself. The door closes itself after her. The name of this cat is Dido. She belongs to Dick Billings.

*Which of these groups of sentences can you read most easily?
Why?*

Perhaps you know that the large letter at the beginning of the first word of each sentence in this second group is a **capital letter**.

Remember that written or printed sentences should always begin with a capital letter.

Perhaps you know that the little dot at the end of each sentence in the second group is a **period**.

All sentences do not end with a period, but most of them do. Would you like to know which do not?

Notice these two sentences:

1. Who is the owner of Dido?
2. What a cute cat Dido is!

The first sentence is a question.

Questions end with a question mark.

Write a question and place a question mark at the end.

The second sentence is an exclamation.

Exclamations end with an exclamation mark.

Write an exclamation and place an exclamation mark at the end.

Every sentence that is not a question or an exclamation should end with a period.

Copy the following group of sentences, using capital letters, periods, question marks, and exclamation marks where they belong.

A lady owned a cat and a canary bird the cat and the bird were good friends the canary was not afraid of the cat one day the lady went to visit a friend on her return the bird was gone the cage had fallen to the floor either the bird had been eaten by the cat or had escaped through the open window the cat seemed very sad the next day she came into the house with the canary in her mouth unhurt she had caught it in a neighboring tree what a noble cat that was do you not think the lady was proud of her pets



LESSON IV.

SENTENCES IN GROUPS.

You learned in Lesson I. that a group of words expressing a thought is a sentence.

You will be interested to know that there is a name also for a group of sentences.

A group of sentences is a paragraph.

The sentences in a paragraph must express thoughts that belong together to tell about something.

Notice the first group of sentences in Lesson III. All the sentences in that group belong together to tell about the cat Dido. They form a paragraph.

The sentences about the cat and the canary bird form another paragraph. They also belong together.

Here is another paragraph :

Two boys went to the brook to fish. One had a rod with a line tied to it. On the end of the line was a hook. A worm was fastened on the hook. The other boy carried a small net fast to the end of a pole. On reaching the stream, Henry threw the hook and line into the water.

Soon he felt something jerk and try to get away with his line. He drew it up quickly, and found a fish fast to the hook. It loosened itself, and was falling into the water. James thrust his net under it and caught it.

Notice that in this paragraph, and in all paragraphs properly written and printed, the first line begins farther to the right than the rest of the lines of the paragraph. This makes a notch or uneven place in the paragraph. You are reading a paragraph now. Notice the notch at the beginning.

We say of the first line of a paragraph that it is *indented*. *Indented* means notched.

A sentence used alone is indented like a paragraph, and may also be called a paragraph.

How many paragraphs are in this lesson?

How many of them consist of one sentence?

Copy the paragraph about the boys who went fishing. Be careful to indent the first line and to use capital letters and periods properly.

Write a paragraph that shall be made of sentences expressing the following ideas:

game of ball
new bat
new ball
bat flies
hits James
carried home
well next day
plays ball

TO THE TEACHER.—Many exercises may need to be added to those in the book, to give sufficient drill in making paragraphs. Solutions of problems, history, geography, and reading lessons furnish abundant materials.



LESSON V.

ANALYSIS OF PARAGRAPHS.

A GRATEFUL DOG.

SOME years ago a little boy, not more than eight years old, was sent on an errand. On his return, as he was going home, a lame dog, rough and dirty, came limping after him. A bad boy would have thrown stones at the poor dog; but the little boy of whom I am telling you had been taught to be gentle and kind.

He saw that the dog had been ill-used, and that it wanted a friend. He let it follow him home.

When the little boy asked his mother if she would let the dog come into the house, the poor dog seemed as though it knew what was said. It looked, oh, so sad! that the children almost cried when they saw its large bright eyes looking up to them for pity.

The mother, who had taught her children to be kind and gentle, did not turn the poor, hungry, lame dog away. She let it go into the

wash-house ; and the children gave it some food, and some water to drink, and some clean straw to lie upon.

After a few days it got well, and it soon made itself clean, and began to show how pleased it was, and how clever it was. It did all that a dog could do to show how thankful it was for the kindness shown to it.—*From "Scattered Seeds."*

How many groups of sentences do you find in the story about the "Grateful Dog?"

Is each of these groups a paragraph?

Why?

What do the sentences in the first paragraph tell? Ans. *They tell of a kind boy meeting a lame dog.*

What do the sentences in the second paragraph tell?

What do the sentences of the third paragraph tell?

What do the sentences of the next paragraph tell?

What do the sentences of the last paragraph tell?

Do you see anything in the picture not told in any of these paragraphs?

Write an additional paragraph and tell how the dog showed his thankfulness, and what pleasure it gave the children?

Do not neglect, when you write paragraphs—

1. To leave a margin half an inch wide at the left of your paper, and
2. To leave a space half an inch long at the beginning of the first line of each paragraph ;
3. To place the proper mark at the end of each sentence, and
4. To begin each sentence with a capital letter.

Copy the entire story, including the paragraph you have added, and observe all the foregoing cautions.

LESSON VI.

A LESSON ABOUT QUESTIONS.

WHEN we want other people to tell us things we do not know, we ask questions. Children ask more questions than grown people, because grown people know many things that children want to know.

Every question is a sentence, and is followed by a mark like this (?) which is called a question mark (see p. 16).

Here are thirteen questions :

Make sentences that shall be answers to them. Don't forget to follow each sentence you make with the proper mark.

1. What is your name ?
2. How old are you ?
3. How many legs has a spider ?
4. What do horses eat ?
5. What do caterpillars become ?
6. What are the eggs of fish called ?
7. Can a dog purr like a cat ?
8. What have you learned about lobsters ?
9. How many petals has a violet ?
10. Is the foot of a horse cleft, like the foot of a cow ?
11. Of what is paper sometimes made ?
12. Can a dog climb a tree like a cat ?
13. Are bats birds ?

Write a question about a tree.

Write a question about a humming-bird.

Write a question about a robin.

See how many questions you can write about a fly.

See how many questions you can write about a buttercup.

What kind of mark did you place after each question?

A sentence that asks a question is called an interrogative sentence.

LESSON VII.

A LESSON ABOUT COMMANDS.

A COMMAND is also a sentence.

Here are two commands :

1. Bring me my hat.
2. Please carry this bucket of coal.

Notice what mark follows each command.

Write a command telling some person to pump a pail of water.

Write another telling some person to sharpen your pencil.

Write one telling some person to explain a problem.

Write a command telling some one to hand you a book.

How many commands have been given to you in this lesson?

We should be kind and polite in giving commands. It is better to say, "*Please bring me my hat,*" than to say, "*Bring me my hat.*"

Commands can sometimes be changed into questions, and are then still more agreeable. We may say, "*Will you please bring me my hat?*"

See whether any of the commands you have written can be changed into questions.

A sentence that expresses a command is called an imperative sentence.

LESSON VIII.

A LESSON ABOUT EXCLAMATIONS.

SOMETIMES sentences express how we feel when something excites us.

If we see a very beautiful rainbow, we are apt to exclaim, "*How beautiful the rainbow is!*"

A boy with the toothache is apt to exclaim, "*Oh, how my tooth pains!*"

If it is a very warm day some one will exclaim, "*How warm it is to-day!*"

Sentences like these that express strong feeling are called exclamatory sentences.

Exclamatory is a long word, but not a very hard one to remember after you know how to pronounce it. It has five syllables: *ex-clam-a-to-ry*.

Pronounce it several times.

Notice what kind of mark is placed after an exclamatory sentence. It is like this (!), and is called an **exclamation mark**.

Which of the following sentences express feeling?

Which ask questions?

Which express commands?

Which declare or state facts?

1. What a beautiful top you have!
2. Did you make the top?
3. Let me see your top.
4. The top is made of wood.
5. John has a pet squirrel.
6. Is it a gray squirrel?
7. He keeps it in a cage.

8. John's pony and the squirrel are friends.
9. The squirrel often sits on the pony's back.
10. Can they talk to each other?
11. How nice it is to have two such fine pets!
12. Tell us about your pets.
13. Spell the word *squirrel* for us.

State which of the foregoing sentences are interrogative. Why?
Which are imperative? Why?
Which are exclamatory? Why?

Periods, commas, question marks, exclamation marks, and other marks used to separate sentences and parts of sentences are called punctuation marks.



LESSON IX.

Write a sentence stating what a wasp can do to you.

Write an exclamatory sentence expressing how this would make you feel.

Write an interrogative sentence asking something about the home of the wasp.

Which one of the sentences you have written states or declares a fact?

A sentence that states or declares a fact is called a declarative sentence.

Most of the sentences we use are declarative sentences.

In Lesson VIII. which of the thirteen sentences are declarative?

Write five declarative sentences about a clock.



LESSON X.

CAPITAL LETTERS AND PUNCTUATION.

THE best way to learn to use correctly capital letters and punctuation marks, is to practice using them as much as possible. So, another exercise for this purpose is provided here, and, if you need them, your teacher will provide additional ones.

Here is a story made up of many sentences, all printed one after another. No capital letters are used; no punctuation marks are used; it is not divided into paragraphs.

You can see by this how important capital letters, paragraphing, and punctuation marks are. If we did not have them, it would be very difficult to read anything.

A WISE RAVEN.

Once there was a raven that was very thirsty he found a pitcher with some water in it his neck and bill were too short to reach the water

what do you think he did he first tried to break the pitcher with his bill how foolish that was then he tried to upset the pitcher this he was not strong enough to do at last it occurred to him to drop stones into the pitcher this was a wise thought he carried many stones and dropped them into the pitcher the water then rose to the top after taking a drink he flew away satisfied

Copy this story, making two paragraphs of it.

Use capital letters and marks of punctuation where they belong.

What kind of sentence is each one in the story?

LESSON XI.

THE PARTS OF A SENTENCE.

HERE are five sentences :

1. Bees gather honey.
2. Fish live in the water.
3. Birds sleep in the tree-tops.
4. Beavers build dams.
5. Kites are made of paper.

In the first sentence, *bees* is the name of the things talked about. *Gather honey* are the words used to tell what is said about *bees*.

What word names the things talked about in the second sentence? In the third? In the fourth? In the fifth?

The word used in a sentence to name the thing talked about, is called the subject of the sentence.

What is the subject of the first sentence? Of the second? Of the third? Of the fourth? Of the fifth?

Supply subjects so that each of the following expressions will be a true sentence.

1. _____ eats grass.
2. _____ struck ten just now.
3. _____ shines brightly.
4. _____ had a large bone in his mouth.
5. _____ caught a big rat.
6. _____ lives in a hollow tree.

The words in a sentence that tell something about the subject are called the predicate.

In the sentence *Bees gather honey*, the words *gather honey* are the predicate, because they are used to tell something about the subject *bees*.

What is the predicate in each of the following sentences ?

1. Hens lay eggs.
2. Cows give milk.
3. Fish swim.
4. Owls are blind in the day-time.

Write predicates for each of the following subjects :

1. This orange _____.
2. Bats _____.
3. The bell _____.
4. An island _____.
5. A pretty little rabbit _____.
6. Henry's new sled _____.

NOTE TO THE TEACHER.—Continue these exercises (supplying subjects and predicates) until every pupil is able to distinguish subjects and predicates readily in easy sentences. Do not puzzle the pupil with transposed sentences. Sentences from preceding lessons may be used for additional exercises.

By a careful use of the author's Practical English Grammar, the teacher will be greatly aided in the teaching of primary grammar. The advanced Grammar has a handy reference index.

LESSON XII.

THE PROPER PLACES FOR SUBJECTS.*

IN the sentence, *Foxes have holes*, the subject *Foxes* is at the beginning of the sentence. This is true of most sentences, but sometimes the subject is found in some other part of the sentence.

In the interrogative sentence, *Do foxes have holes?* you see that the subject *foxes* is not at the beginning, but stands among the words of the predicate, *do have holes*.

Why is *foxes* the subject?

It is the subject, because it names that about which something is asked.

Name the subject in each of the following sentences.

Tell why it is the subject.

1. Can cats climb trees?
3. Does the pet rabbit eat apples?
3. Does the old cow wear a bell?
4. Have you a fishing-rod?
5. Can an owl see well in the day-time?
6. Has the sheep a long tail?

An imperative sentence has no subject expressed. The person who uses an imperative sentence, keeps the subject in his mind. He thinks the subject, but he does not say it or write it.

In the sentence, *Open your book*, these three words form the predicate. The person who uses the command has *you* in mind as the subject. He means that *you* are to open your book. He

* TO THE TEACHER.—This lesson, and many others, may need to be divided.

does not need to say the subject, because every one understands who is meant. Such a subject is, for this reason, called **an understood subject**.

Name the understood subject in each of the following imperative sentences.

Tell why it is the subject.

1. Keep your hat off in the house.
2. Do not eat with your knife.
3. Be polite to everybody.
4. Be kind to dumb animals.
5. Name the subjects of these sentences.
6. Always thank people for favors.
7. Clean your finger-nails after washing your hands.
8. Brush your teeth after each meal.

In an exclamatory sentence, the subject often stands near the end of the sentence.

How hard the ball is! In this sentence, *ball* is the thing talked about, and is, therefore, the subject.

Name the subject in each of the following exclamatory sentences. Tell why it is the subject.

1. What excellent apples this tree bears!
2. How fast the train moves!
3. How easy this lesson is!
4. How high the crow flies!
5. What a strong arm the blacksmith has!
6. How small the mouse is!
7. What beautiful plumage the canary has!
8. How eager the chicks are for their feed!

Notice that every exclamatory sentence is followed by an exclamation mark.



LESSON XIII.

A COPYING LESSON.

Copy the following story, and be careful to put in all the capital letters and punctuation marks, just as they are found here.

Be careful also to make the paragraphs the same.

PEPPER AND POLLY.

Pepper is the name of a kitten with black and white fur and green eyes. He came to our house in a basket. Jane took him out of the basket. The first thing he did was to scratch the baby. The next thing he did was to scamper up stairs and hide. Jane found him at night fast asleep in a box with her new bonnet. What a mixture of fur, feathers, and ribbons there must have been !

Pepper had bad tricks. He would chase little chickens. He finally killed two little black chickens. Scolding and punishing seemed to do him no good.

Jane had a parrot by the name of Polly. Polly broke Pepper of this naughty trick. One day Polly concealed herself in the high grass with the chickens. Then she made a noise like a chicken. Pepper thought it was a chicken. He pounced upon Polly. Polly gave him a sound whipping. She pulled some of his fur out. She picked his head sore. He did not get well for many days. Was not that a good lesson for Pepper? He never chased chickens again.

How many declarative sentences are in this story?

How many interrogative sentences?

How many exclamatory sentences?



LESSON XIV.

A REVIEW LESSON.*

A REVIEW lesson is one in which things that have been studied before, are studied again to learn them more thoroughly.

Here are some questions for you to answer. If you know everything in the first thirteen lessons, you can easily answer all these questions. If you cannot answer them, turn back and find the answers. Then write the answers.

In writing, let each answer be composed of one or more complete sentences. Be careful about your paragraphs, capital letters, and punctuation.

* TO THE TEACHER.—There is, no doubt, enough material here for several lessons. Do not try to review more than can be thoroughly done. Insist on all answers being written. It may be easier for you and more agreeable for the pupils to make this an oral exercise; but if you do, they will not get all the benefit from it. By conversation, questions, comparisons, friendly criticisms, and corrections make the exercises as interesting as possible. Be careful not to make the lessons too long, so as to require so great an amount of writing that it will become *very* tiresome. Insist on neat papers, good penmanship, correct punctuation, use of capitals, etc. Above all things keep your pupils expressing their thoughts in writing. Remember, "Writing maketh an exact man."

1. What is a sentence?
2. Of what are sentences made?
3. Do we make sentences when we talk? When we write?
4. What is language?
5. What is the name of the language you use?
6. What is the name of the language used in China? In France?
7. How do boys and girls learn the language they use?
8. What is sign language?
9. What have you learned about the use of capital letters?
10. After what kind of sentences should we use an exclamation mark?
11. After what kind of sentences should a question mark be used?
12. After what kind is a period used?
13. What is a paragraph?
14. How is the first line of a paragraph written?
15. Name the four kinds of sentences.
16. Write a sentence of each kind?
17. What is the subject of a sentence?
18. What is the predicate of a sentence?
19. What is the position of the subject in the declarative sentence?
20. What is the position of the subject in the interrogative sentence?
21. What is the position of the subject in the exclamatory sentence?
22. What kind of sentence has the subject understood?

LESSON XV.

ANOTHER REVIEW LESSON.

State what kind of sentence each of the following is, and indicate the subject and predicate of each:

1. Ebony is a very hard, black wood.
2. Camphor is the white gum of a tree.

3. Oranges grow in the West Indies.
4. Where are the West Indies?
5. Sugar is made from sugar-cane.
6. Sugar-cane looks like growing corn.
7. Write the word sugar-cane with a hyphen.
8. What is a hyphen?
9. Ask your teacher.
10. A stitch in time saves nine.
11. Little leaks sink great ships.
12. A soft answer turneth away wrath.
13. What a great king Solomon was!
14. Tell some interesting story about Solomon.
15. Who was Solomon's father?
16. Look not upon the wine.

LESSON XVI.

A LESSON ABOUT NAMES.

THE words we use in sentences are not all alike. Some of them are the names of persons, places, or things; as *John, town, ball*. Other words express actions; as, *walk, ride, sing*. Others express qualities of things; as, *good, beautiful, hard*. Some connect expressions; as, Spring has come, *and* I am glad.

There are eight different kinds of words in our language, each having its own office to perform.

The eight different kinds of words are called **parts of speech**.

Name-words are called nouns.

Copy the following nouns in two lists:

1. *Put in the first list names of persons.*
2. *Put in the second list the names of animals.*

boy,	person,	Mabel,
caterpillar,	animal,	Columbus,
Horace,	Henry,	cat,
sparrow,	bee,	mouse,
horse,	fish,	girl.

Notice that four nouns, Horace, Henry, Mabel, and Columbus begin with capital letters.

Copy the following nouns in two lists :

1. *Put in the first list the names of places.*
2. *Put in the second list the names of things.*

door,	sugar,	Pennsylvania,	state,
Philadelphia,	school,	hive,	sieve,
jug,	ax,	smoke,	board,
book,	flower,	Chicago,	slate,
place,	sled,	glass,	city.

Notice that three nouns, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, and Chicago, begin with capital letters.



LESSON XVII.

ANOTHER LESSON ABOUT NAMES.

SOME names belong to all things of the same kind. Others belong only to certain persons and things.

The noun *man* applies to any man. It is a name that will apply to all the men in the world, but the noun *John* belongs only to some particular person or persons.

The noun *city* applies to all cities, but *Boston* is the name of a particular city.

The noun *month* applies to any month, but *July* is the name of a certain month.

The nouns *man*, *city*, and *month* are called **common nouns**.

The nouns *John*, *Boston*, and *July* are called **proper nouns**.

A proper noun, you notice, always begins with a capital letter.

Copy five proper nouns from your reader.

Copy five common nouns from your reader.

Write the names of five objects seen on your way to school.

Write the names of all the months in the year.

Write the names of all the days of the week.

Write the common names of five animals.

Write the proper names of five of your playmates.

Write two names of persons.

Write two names of things.

Write two names of animals.

Write three names of periods of time,—such as day, minute.



LESSON XVIII.

A LESSON ABOUT INITIALS.

ONCE there was a little boy by the name of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. He grew to be a great man, and wrote some very beautiful poetry for boys and girls to read. One who writes poetry is called a poet.

He often shortened his name by writing it thus: *Henry W. Longfellow*.

The first letter of a word is called its initial letter. *Initial* means *beginning*. *W* is the initial of the word *Wadsworth*.

When initials are used instead of words a period should be placed after each.

How many words are in this poet's name?

Write your full name.

How many words are in your name?

If your name has three words in it, write it, using the initial for the middle word.

Did you ever see a person's name having four words?

Write the name of each member of your class, using the initial for the middle word of each.

The initial of the first word and last word in a name should seldom be used. If some one were to write for you the initials O. W. H., you would not know whose name was meant; but if he were to write Oliver Wendell Holmes or Oliver W. Holmes, you might recognize it as the name of another great poet.

LESSON XIX.

A LESSON ABOUT ABBREVIATIONS.

INSTEAD of the word *bushel*, the shortened form *bu.* may be used. Instead of the word *October*, the shortened form *Oct.* may be used. Instead of the word *Mister*, the shortened form *Mr.* may be used.

A shortened word is called an abbreviation.

Abbreviate means shorten.

Initials are abbreviations. (See previous lesson.)

A period should always be placed after an abbreviation.

Abbreviations generally (not always) begin with capital letters.

P. M. is the abbreviation for *afternoon*.

A. M. " " " *forenoon*.

No. " " " *number*.

St. " " " *street*.

Dr. " " " *doctor*.

Rev. " " " *reverend*.

Mrs. (pronounced *mis'sis*)

is the abbreviation for *mistress*.

qt. " " " *quart*.

oz. " " " *ounce*.

doz. " " " *dozen*.

ft. " " " *foot or feet* (in length).

in. " " " *inch*.

C. O. D. " " " *collect on delivery*.

yd. " " " *yard*.

Sun.

Mon.

Tues.

Wed.

Thurs.

Fri.

Sat.

} are abbreviations for the different days of the week.

Three of the foregoing words or their abbreviations are used with the names of persons to show them respect or honor.

Words or their abbreviations used with the names of persons to indicate respect, honor, or distinction are called titles.

We should write *Mr. J. B. Clark*, if the man by this name is a respectable member of the community in which he lives.

We should write *Mrs. J. B. Clark* as the name of Mr. J. B. Clark's wife (if Mr. Clark is living).

We should write **Mrs.** *Ann Clark*, if the woman named is a widow.

We should write *G. J. Wilson*, **Esq.**, if the man named is a lawyer.

We should write **Rev.** *P. S. Pollock*, if the man named is a minister of the gospel.

We should write **Miss** *Elizabeth Richards*, if the person named is an unmarried lady.

In using titles, we should be careful—

1. Not to use with the same name, two or more titles having nearly the same meaning. We should not say **Dr.** T. B. Johnson, **M. D.**, or **Mr.** A. B. Jones, **Esq.**

2. Not to give ourselves titles. This would not show good taste. When an unmarried lady, however, is writing a letter to a stranger, she may use the title **Miss**, in order that she may be properly addressed in the reply. Married ladies should always use the title **Mrs.** when signing their names to letters.

<i>Jan.</i>	} are the abbreviations of the different months.
<i>Feb.</i>	
<i>Mar.</i>	
<i>Apr.</i>	
<i>Aug.</i>	
<i>Sept.</i>	
<i>Oct.</i>	
<i>Nov.</i>	
<i>Dec.</i>	

May, *June*, and *July* are not abbreviated.

Every good dictionary contains a list of words abbreviated. You should learn where this list is, and how to find in it the abbreviations you need to use.

LESSON XX.

A COPYING LESSON.

Copy the following sentences and explain all the abbreviations. Notice carefully the periods and capital letters used :

1. Mr. and Mrs. Geo. Walters are our neighbors.
2. The Rev. B. T. Pencyl took the train at 4 P. M.
3. We live at No. 42 Nassau St., near the residence of Dr. Davis.
4. He goes to the city on Mon., Wed., and Fri. of each week.
5. I will give you a qt. of syrup for a doz. eggs.
6. It will take 15 yds. of carpet to cover a room 9 ft. wide and 15 ft. long.

Find in the dictionary the correct abbreviations for the following words, then show how they should be used :

Esquire,	Junior,	General,
Doctor,	Governor,	President,
Professor,	East,	West,
North,	South,	September.

Find correct abbreviated titles for persons of the following description. Supply the names and write the names and titles together :

MODEL.—Benjamin G. Battles, Sr. (*for the fourth description*).

1. A married lady.
2. An unmarried lady.
3. A son who has the same name as his father.
4. A father who has a son of the same name.
5. An editor of a newspaper.
6. A judge.
7. A lawyer.

8. A physician.
9. A clergyman.
10. A merchant.
11. The governor of your State.
12. The President of the United States.
13. The superintendent of your schools.
14. A teacher in a college.

LESSON XXI.

HOW TO WRITE A LETTER.

Danville, Pa.,

June 10, 1896.

My dear Mother,

I have been intending to write you a letter before to-day, but we have been having so much fun I could not find time to write, except nights, and then I was so tired and sleepy I could not think what to say. So Aunt Julia told me to go to bed, as she thought you wouldn't care if I didn't write.

It is raining to-day, so I have lots of time

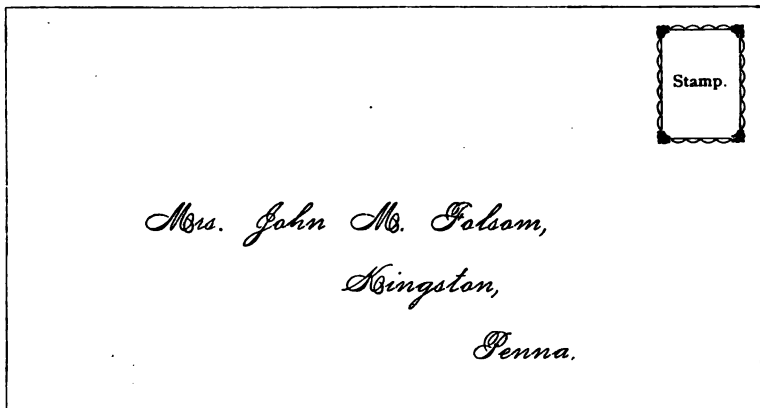
to write. Yesterday we went to visit at Fred's grandpa's. Fred's grandpa bought Fred a pair of tame pigeons, and we saw them making a nest in an old shed near the barn. These are the funniest pigeons I ever saw. Sometimes they fly very high, and then suddenly they stop and begin to turn somersaults backward. They keep on turning and turning until they almost reach the ground. Then suddenly they spread their wings and fly away as if they thought they had performed a smart trick.

I wish you would get me a pair of this kind of pigeons. I am coming home on next Tuesday, and I shall be glad to see you and papa.

Your affectionate son,

Harry P. Folsom.

The Envelope addressed and Stamped.



1. Copy the foregoing letter, taking care to make the same arrangement of all its parts.

Be careful, also, about punctuation, paragraphs, capitals, and the use of titles.

Imagine you are visiting an uncle in the country at hay-making time. See the grass cut with a mowing machine, dried in the sun, raked with a horse-rake, and lifted on the wagon with its long rack, by strong men using long-handled forks. You ride to the barn on this high load of hay, and see it put in the great mow.

2. Write a letter to your sister describing how you saw them making hay.

Imagine spending the Christmas holidays with your cousin in the city. You take drives in the park. You and your cousin ride on horseback. You attend a concert one night. One evening you play games—"blind-man's buff," perhaps, or checkers. You go skating one day.

3. Write a letter to your mother telling her of your visit.



LESSON XXII.

Write the story told by this picture.

REMEMBER to take great care in your use of capitals, paragraphs, punctuation, and penmanship.

If you learn to write neatly, and express your thoughts well in writing, it will be of great value to you sometime.

Some day you will want to write letters to your friends, or conduct the business of a store, or manage a factory, or a farm, or do something else that will require you to express your thoughts in writing. When that time comes, you will be glad you have had these lessons that require you to practice expressing your thoughts on paper.

Don't you know persons who wish they could write well? Would they not be more prosperous, more useful, and happier if they could write well?

People who can write well, can generally talk well, too.

LESSON XXIII.

ONE AND MORE THAN ONE.

THE *boy* has an *apple*.

In this sentence one boy and one apple are mentioned.

The *boys* have some *apples*.

In this sentence *more than one* boy and *more than one* apple are mentioned.

How was the noun *boy* changed to make it name more than one? The noun *apple*?

Singular number means one.

Plural number means more than one.

A noun in the singular number names one thing.

A noun in the plural number names more than one thing.

The noun *boy* is in the singular number.

The noun *boys* is in the plural number.

Adding s to the singular of the noun *boy* makes it plural.

This is true of many nouns.

Add s to the following nouns, and explain how the meaning of each is changed:

MODEL.—*Cat + s = cats.* This is now a plural noun and means more than one *cat*.

cat,	pencil,	key,	pig,	chair,
dog,	hen,	rake,	hoe,	lamb,
book,	pen,	fork,	boy,	table,
slate,	carriage,	shovel,	girl,	bird.

Remove s from the end of each of the following nouns, and explain how the meaning is changed:

MODEL.—*Hoes* - *s* = *hoe*.—This word is now a singular noun, and means only one *hoe*.

hoes,	balls,	stoves,	eyes,	arms,
boots,	lessons,	coals,	ears,	legs,
wagons,	letters,	papers,	hands,	toes,
cows,	lamps,	baskets,	cheeks,	fingers.

Write the plural forms of the following nouns :

hen,	book,	nest,
chair,	leg,	stove,
cat,	pen,	shoe.

Fill each blank in the following sentences with one of the plural forms you have just made :

1. — are made to sit on.
2. Wise people read good —.
3. — catch mice.
4. — lay eggs.
5. — are made to write with.
6. Leather is used in making —.
7. We burn coal in —.
8. Birds build —.
9. Tables stand by means of —.

Use the plurals of the following words in the following blanks, where they will be suitable :

boy,	chair,	field,
pen,	flower,	back,
lamp,	bird,	letter.

1. We use — in writing —.
2. The — saw some — feeding their young.
3. These beautiful — grew in the —.
4. Some — have high —.
5. The — are burning brightly.

LESSON XXIV.

NOUNS MADE PLURAL ANOTHER WAY.

IN the previous lesson, we learned that many nouns are made plural by adding the letter *s* to the singular form.

Read these two sentences :

1. Two *benches* stand on the porch.
2. One *bench* is broken.

How is the plural of the noun *bench* made ?

Could you pronounce it, if it were made plural by adding *s* only ?

Try it.

You see it ends in a sound that will not unite with *s* alone, so we use *es* to make it plural.

There are many nouns of this kind.

Write the plural form of each of the following nouns :

boy,	dish,	tax,	church,	match,
watch,	peach,	brush,	ax,	box.

Fill each of the following blanks with one of the plural forms you have just made :

1. The cook is washing the ———.
2. We use ——— to light lamps.
3. Oranges are shipped in ———.
4. The man was unable to pay his ———.
5. The congregations of the town built two new ———.
6. The jeweler repairs clocks and ———.
7. Farmers enclose their fields with ———.
8. ——— are excellent fruit.
9. Painters use ——— in painting.
10. The wood-choppers are grinding their ———.

LESSON XXV.

PECULIAR PLURALS.

THE plural form of *mouse* is *mice*.

The plural form of *goose* is *geese*.

The plural form of *ox* is *oxen*.

Write the singular form of each of the following plural nouns :

men,	children,	geese,
women,	feet,	mice,
oxen,	teeth,	lice.

In the following sentences, fill each blank with one of the foregoing plural nouns :

1. We saw two ——— chasing a fox.
2. Jane got her ——— wet while at play.
3. Good little girls grow into good ———.
4. Richard has two little white ——— in a cage.
5. Did you ever see a yoke of ——— ?
6. Jesus blessed little ———.
7. ——— are little parasites that suck the blood of animals.
8. The feathers of ——— are used in pillows.

Find the plural nouns in the following sentences :

Kind hearts are the gardens.
 Kind thoughts are the roots.
 Kind words are the blossoms.
 Kind deeds are the fruits.

What is the singular form of each noun ?

How is the plural form made ?

What is the subject and predicate of each sentence ?

LESSON XXVI.

PLURALS OF NOUNS ENDING IN *F*.

THE plural of *beef* is *beefes*.

The plural of *calf* is *calves*.

The plural of *wife* is *wives*.

Nouns ending in *f* or *fe* often change this ending to *ve*, and then add *s* to form the plural.

What is the plural of—

sheaf,	elf,	loaf,
leaf,	knife,	half,
shelf,	life,	self.

The plural of *cliff* is *cliffs*.

The plural of *safe* is *safes*.

The plural of *chief* is *chiefs*.

These nouns add *s* to form the plural. When you are in doubt about the plural of a noun ending in *f* or *fe*, consult the dictionary.

Form the plural of the following nouns in this way :

dwarf,	gulf,	reef,
fife,	hoof,	scarf,
giraffe,	proof,	roof.

In the following sentences, fill each blank with the plural form of one of these nouns :

sheaf,	hoof,	half,	knife,
chief,	giraffe,	loaf,	dwarf.

1. In Africa Mr. Stanley found tribes of very tiny people called _____.
2. _____ have very long necks.
3. John and James are whittling with their _____.
4. Men cut grain and bind it in _____.
5. A horse has four _____.
6. An apple may be cut into two _____.
7. The rulers of tribes of Indians were called _____.
8. Have you read the parable of the _____ and fishes?

In the following sentences, fill each blank with the plural of one of the following nouns :

safe,	leaf,	beef,	cliff,
gulf,	calf,	fife,	life.

1. A cow and her twin _____ were exhibited at the World's Fair.
2. We are helped by studying the _____ of great men.
3. There are not two _____ alike on any tree.
4. The robbers blew open two _____ with explosives.
5. The boys made a great noise blowing their _____.
6. Eagles build their nests on _____ of high mountains.
7. The butcher killed three _____ to-day.
8. Along the Atlantic coast are many _____.



LESSON XXVII.

PLURALS OF NOUNS ENDING IN Y.

1. The *ladies* took a drive.
2. One *lady* did not go.

Notice that the plural of the noun *lady* is made by changing *y* to *ie*, and then adding the letter *s*.

1. The *boys* played ball.
2. One *boy* was hurt.

Notice that the plural of *boy* is made by adding *s* without changing the *y* to *ie*.

Write the plural form of each of the following nouns by adding s:

boy,	day,	alley,
monkey,	money,	ray,
toy,	chimney,	valley.

Notice that *a*, *e*, or *o* stands before *y* in these nouns.

Write the plural form of each of the following nouns by changing y to ie and then adding s:

MODEL.—Lady, ladie + s = ladies.

lady,	sky,	penny,
fairy,	daisy,	baby,
city,	body,	pony.

Notice that *a*, *e*, or *o* does not stand before *y* in these nouns.

You see then that all nouns ending in the letter *y* have their plurals formed by changing *y* to *ie*, and then adding *s*, except when *a*, *e*, or *o* stands before the *y*.

In the following sentences, fill each blank with the plural of one of the following nouns:

baby,	valley,	penny,	city,
daisy,	toy,	alley,	fairy,
pony,	lady,	monkey,	story.

1. Henry has ten cents in his purse, and has gone to buy some _____.

2. Some little girls drove a team of _____ through town.

3. —— are low level lands lying between mountains.
4. The kind —— told us some interesting —— about —— who lived in a field of ——.
5. —— in large —— spend most of their time —— in the streets and ——.
6. —— often become frightened and cry when they see organ-grinders with their ——.

LESSON XXVIII.

UNUSUAL PLURAL USES.

1. One *deer* is in the park.
2. Two *deer* are in the park.
3. One *sheep* has a black face.
4. All the *sheep* have black faces.

What is true of the nouns *deer* and *sheep* in these four sentences? Have they plural forms?

This *cider* is made of apples.

Could we make a statement about *ciders*?

Could we use the plural forms of the nouns *rice, corn, wheat, brass, gold, silver, news*?

What is true of all these nouns? Have they plural forms?

See by trial whether any of the following nouns can be used in the plural number :

coffee,	sugar,	cream,	milk,
darkness,	fun,	honesty,	copper,
iron,	lead,	wheat,	rye.
music,	peace,		

1. These *ashes* are the remains of burnt wood.
2. Your *clothes* are new.
3. These *scissors* are dull.

What is the number of the nouns *ashes, clothes, and scissors* in the foregoing sentences?

Could these nouns be used in the singular? Try one.

See by trial whether any of the following nouns can be used in the singular number :

ashes,	clothes,	goods,	measles,
mumps,	shears,	spectacles,	tongs,
trousers,	breeches,	pants,	victuals.

What is true of the number of all these nouns?

In the following sentences, fill each blank with a noun from the following lists. State what its peculiarity is :

mumps,	coffee,	clothes,
gold,	corn,	pants,
victuals,	ashes,	scissors,
wheat,	sugar,	cream,
silver,	spectacles,	goods.
trousers,	breeches,	

1. Charles drinks two cups of —— for breakfast, and puts —— and —— in both.
2. —— and —— are metals of great value, used in making coins.
3. —— and —— are valuable kinds of grain, raised in this country.
4. Richard was sifting —— and tore his —— on a nail.
5. Robert has the ——, and his jaws are so swollen he can scarcely eat any ——.
6. The merchant put on his —— that he might see to cut off three yards of calico with the —— . He sells good ——.
7. Old —— are sometimes manufactured into paper.
8. Pantaloon, ——, ——, and —— are names for the same garment.



LESSON XXIX.

Read this poem, copy from it all the plural nouns, and explain how each plural is formed.

TWO ROBINS WANT FOOD.

When the *leaves* had all dropt from the *trees*,
And the *forests* were chilly and bare ;
When the *brooks* were beginning to freeze,
And *snow-flakes* fell down through the air,

Two *robins* came out from the wood
To the warm *habitations* of *men* ;
On the casement the *wanderers* stood,
And thus their *petitions* began :

"The *snow-flakes* come down thick and fast,
The *trees* give us shelter no more ;
Take pity on us in this blast,
For our *feet* are all bleeding and sore.

"Oh, throw us some *morsels* of bread,
While you sit by the side of your fire ;
And when we are warm and well fed,
We'll whistle for you without hire.

"Till the *rays* of the sun shining bright
Have melted the *snows*, let us stay ;
Oh, see what a terrible night !
We shall die if you drive us away.

"The *bugs* and the *worms* are all gone,
We can find neither *berries* nor *seeds* ;
The ground is as hard as a stone ;
Supply, we entreat you, our *needs*.

"Have pity upon us, and bring
Some food from your rich winter store ;
We'll leave on the first day of spring,
And never will trouble you more."

QUESTIONS.

1. How many plural nouns are in this poem ?
2. How many singular nouns ?
3. What is the last noun in the first stanza ?
4. Is it a singular or a plural noun ?
5. Can its number be changed ?
6. What noun is there in the poem whose singular ends in *f* or *fe*.

7. What noun whose singular ends in *y* preceded by *a*, *e*, or *o* is found in the poem?

8. What noun is there in the sixth stanza whose singular ends in *y*, not preceded by these letters?

9. What two nouns in the poem have singulars wholly different in spelling from the plurals?



LESSON XXX.

NOUNS DENOTING OWNERSHIP.

1. Some *boys* were flying kites.
2. One *boy's* kite became tangled in a tree-top.

Notice the difference between the noun *boys* in the first sentence, and the noun *boy's* in the second.

They would be exactly alike, but for the little comma in the second. That little comma, however, shows a great difference in the meaning. The word *boys* in the first sentence means that there was more than one boy, but *boy's* in the second sentence means that a boy *owned* something.

Which nouns in the following sentences show that something is owned?

1. The cat's fur is soft.
2. Eagles carry their young on their backs.
3. The eagle's beak is shaped like a hook.
4. The dog's teeth are sharp.
5. Dogs can gnaw bones.
6. John's pony lost a shoe.
7. The pony's foot became sore.
8. The lamb's mother would not own it.

Notice the position of the comma in these nouns.

How does the position of this comma differ from that of other commas?

Such a comma is called a **raised comma**.

A raised comma used to denote ownership is called an **apostrophe**.

When we want to make a noun denote ownership, we place after it an apostrophe (') and the letter *s*.

Ownership means possession. A noun denoting ownership is called a **possessive**.

This is true of all singular nouns.

We shall learn how to make plural nouns denote ownership in the next lesson.

Fill each blank in the following sentences with the possessive form of one of the following nouns :

hen,	squirrel,	horse,	fly,
goat,	fisherman,	spider,	cow.
bird,	cat,	Edward,	

1. The —— nest was robbed by bad boys.
2. Nuts are the —— chief-article of food.
3. The children found a —— egg in the barn.
4. Many persons use —— milk instead of —— milk.
5. We can nail an iron shoe on a —— foot without causing any pain.
6. The —— web is made of silk.
7. Did you ever notice how very fast a —— wings move?
8. The —— net was filled with fine fishes.
9. Have you seen —— new top?
10. Do not step on the —— tail.

LESSON XXXI.

PLURAL POSSESSIVES.

NOTICE how the possessives in the following sentences differ from those in the former lesson :

1. All the *girls'* dolls have been put away.
2. Six *boys'* hats hang in the hall.
3. *Foxes'* dens are generally under rocks.

Does the noun *girls'* mean one, or more than one?

Is the same true of *boys'*? Of *foxes'*?

Do all three of these nouns denote ownership? Have you noticed that—

To make nouns denote ownership in the plural, we first write the plural form of the noun, and then place the apostrophe after it?

MODEL.

Singular.

rat,

Plural.

rats,

Plural Possessive.

rats'.

Write first the plural, and then the plural possessive of each of the following nouns, as in the model :

lamb,	calf,	father,	uncle,
wolf,	aunt,	mother,	sister,
horse,	teacher,	parent,	brother,
mule,	pupil,	son,	cousin.

What is the difference in meaning between—

bee's honey and bees' honey?

cat's claws and cats' claws?

hen's eggs and hens' eggs?

pupil's lessons and pupils' lessons?

teacher's books and teachers' books?

lamb's wool and lambs' wool?

LESSON XXXII.

POSSESSIVES MADE OF PLURALS NOT ENDING IN S.

READ these two sentences, and notice the possessives in them :

1. The child's toys were badly broken.
2. The children's toys were badly broken.

What is the difference in meaning between *child's* toys and *children's* toys ?

What is the plural of *child* ?

How is this plural made to denote ownership ?

What is the regular way to make plural nouns denote ownership ?

How does this way differ from the regular way ?

What is the plural of the noun *boy* ? the possessive plural ?

What is the plural of the noun *man* ? the possessive plural ?

Write the plural forms of—

ox,	goose,	man,
tooth,	mouse,	woman,
mouse,	louse,	foot,
deer,	sheep,	child.

Have you noticed that none of these plurals ends with the letter *s* ?

Plural nouns that do not end in *s*, are made possessives by adding the apostrophe and *s* ; that is, they are made possessives in the same way as singular nouns.

Insert in each blank of the following sentences, the possessive plural of the noun that stands at the end of each sentence :

1. ——— claws are long, sharp, and curved (cat).
2. A hole in the flour-bag may be evidence of ——— mischief (mouse).
3. Drawing heavy logs is ——— work (ox).
4. Grinding the food we eat is our ——— work (tooth).
5. ——— feathers make soft pillows (goose).
6. The tailor makes and sells ——— clothing (man).
7. The milliner makes and sells ——— bonnets (woman).
8. Many garments are made of ——— wool (sheep).
9. ——— antlers are shed once a year (deer).
10. Mr. McKinney sells ——— shoes (child).



LESSON XXXIII.

OTHER WAYS TO DENOTE OWNERSHIP.

1. We may say *John's sled*, or *The sled belonging to John*.
2. We may say *A fly's legs*, or *The legs of a fly*.
3. We may say *A horse's teeth*, or *The teeth of a horse*.

Fill the blanks in the following expressions :

1. The bonnet belonging to Jane, or ———.
2. The poems written by Lowell, or ———.
3. The wages earned in a day, or ———.
4. The soldier's sword, or ———.
5. A spider's web, or ———.
6. The den of a fox, or ———.
7. The horns of a cow, or ———.
8. A deer's antlers, or ———.
9. The clock's tick, or ———.
10. The claws of a cat, or ———.
11. The fins of a fish, or ———.

12. Henry's boat, or ———.
13. The tail of a rat, or ———.
14. The crow's plumage, or ———.
15. The fire-fly's light, or ———.



LESSON XXXIV.

ANOTHER USE OF THE APOSTROPHE.

We may write *can't* instead of *can not*.

We may write *don't* instead of *do not*.

We may write *'tis* instead of *it is*.

We may write *she'll* instead of *she will*.

You see, therefore, that two words commonly used together may be shortened into one, and the apostrophe is then used to show that we have omitted one or more letters.

Such shortened expressions are called contractions. The word contraction means shortened.

Examine the following contractions, and see whether you can determine what letter or letters have been omitted :

I'm for *I am*.

'Twas for *it was*.

I'll for *I will*.

It's for *it is*.

I've for *I have*.

Who'd for *who would*.

I'd for *I would*.

We're for *we are*.

There's for *there is*.

Isn't for *is not*.

Expand each of the following contractions :

MODEL.—*We'll* is a shortened form of *we shall*.

wouldn't,

doesn't,

they'll,

she's,

you'll,

he'd,

'twill,

aren't,

he's,

'tis,

haven't,

that's.

Use contractions in each of the following sentences instead of the words in italics :

1. *What is* the use of crying over spilt milk?
2. I *have not* time to read as much as I should.
3. *I have* been coasting to-day.
4. *We are* trying to learn about the uses of the apostrophe.
5. *Would you not* like to learn to skate? .
6. *It was* nearly dark when we reached the bridge.
7. *Who is* playing the piano so well?
8. *I have* half a notion to buy it myself.
9. *You have* torn your new hat.
10. *Are you not* going to school to-day?

LESSON XXXV.

Insert apostrophes in the following expressions where they belong :

1. The crows nest is in a high tree.
2. The old crow pulls up the farmers corn.
3. Why are crows nests built so high?
4. Mr. Clark sells ladies furs.
5. Mr. Hess sells childrens shoes.
6. The oxens yoke was broken.
7. That gentlemans umbrella was turned by the wind.
8. The foxs den was under the rock.
9. The pupils slates are ready for work.
10. The ladys watch was stolen.
11. The sparrows nest was robbed.
12. He is a wolf in sheeps clothing.
13. Glue may be made from calves feet.
14. Cows horns are dangerous weapons.
15. The caterpillars nest is made of silk.
16. Dont kill the birds.
17. Whereer you go, whateer you do, be true and be a man.

LESSON XXXVI.

WORDS JOINED IN MEANING TO NOUNS.

Apple.

- | | |
|------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. <i>Sweet</i> apple. | 6. <i>Juicy</i> apple. |
| 2. <i>Sour</i> apple. | 7. <i>Delicious</i> apple. |
| 3. <i>Small</i> apple. | 8. <i>Mellow</i> apple. |
| 4. <i>Red</i> apple. | 9. <i>This</i> apple. |
| 5. <i>Large</i> apple. | 10. <i>One</i> apple. |

Notice how the meaning of the noun apple is changed by each of these ten words used with it.

Sweet, *sour*, and some of the other words change the meaning so as to indicate what kind of apple is meant.

The word *this* changes the meaning to show which apple is meant.

The word *one* changes the meaning to indicate how many apples are meant.

Words used to change the meaning of nouns are called **adjectives**.

The word *modify* means *change the meaning of*. We may say, therefore, that **adjectives modify nouns**.

Adjectives often denote quality. In the expression, *a tall man*, *tall* denotes a quality of the man.

A *good* son; a *wise* father; a *patient* mother. In these expressions *good* is a quality of *son*; *wise* is a quality of *father*; and *patient* is a quality of *mother*.

Fill the blanks in the following expressions with adjectives taken from the following list denoting quality. Do not use the same adjective twice :

wide,	diligent,	strong,	fat,	large,
skillful,	high,	convenient,	fast,	generous,
boiled,	little,	empty,	tall.	

- | | |
|----------------------|-------------------|
| 1. A ——— blacksmith. | 8. A ——— house. |
| 2. A ——— pupil. | 9. A ——— barn. |
| 3. A ——— horse. | 10. A ——— street. |
| 4. A ——— doctor. | 11. A ——— hen. |
| 5. A ——— tree. | 12. A ——— fence. |
| 6. A ——— lamb. | 13. A ——— man. |
| 7. A ——— egg. | 14. A ——— bucket. |

LESSON XXXVII.

ADJECTIVES DENOTING QUALITY.

Mention a quality that may belong to each of the following objects :

MODEL.—A *high* hill.

hill,	valley,	book,	cork,
brass,	iron,	wood,	rubber,
soap,	water,	chair,	table,
watch,	clock,	lamp,	stove.

Mention two qualities for each of the following objects :

A may be changed to an when it will sound better.

MODEL.—A *ragged* old coat.

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. A ——— coat. | 6. A ——— fox. |
| 2. A ——— apple. | 7. A ——— rainbow. |
| 3. A ——— beggar. | 8. A ——— cloud. |
| 4. A ——— chair. | 9. A ——— dog. |
| 5. A ——— bottle. | 10. A ——— flag. |

LESSON XXXVIII.

PRACTICE IN USING ADJECTIVES.

Supply an adjective with each of the following nouns :

— apple,	— book,	— story,	— knife,	— man,
— stone,	— night,	— horse,	— hill,	— fox,
— girl,	— boy,	— ring,	— field,	— dog.

Supply a noun with each of the following adjectives :

dark —,	ugly —,	good —,	wet —,
kind —,	polite —,	beautiful —,	blue —,
lame —,	hard —,	true —,	weary —,
swift —,	sour —,	cold —,	sly —.



LESSON XXXIX.

IMPORTANCE OF ADJECTIVES.

See how many adjectives may be used appropriately with each of the following nouns :

MODEL.

a <i>little</i> box,	a <i>large</i> box,	a <i>wooden</i> box,	a <i>tin</i> box,	
an <i>empty</i> box,	a <i>broken</i> box,	a <i>useful</i> box,	a <i>tight</i> box,	
a <i>useless</i> box,	a <i>long</i> box,	a <i>paper</i> box,	a <i>red</i> box.	
bear,	knife,	night,	hill,	gold,
field,	ring,	book,	stone,	silver,
dog,	fox,	squirrel,	owl,	iron.

Write the following sentences, omitting all the adjectives :

1. Four fat chickens were killed by a sly old fox.
2. The proud robin whistled a sweet song.
3. Rubber is the hardened juice of a large tree in Brazil.
4. The remarkable elasticity of rubber adapts it to many useful purposes.
5. Waterproof cloth is made by applying thin coatings of liquid rubber to cloth.
6. Vulcanized rubber is a hard, black, shining substance, made by heating common rubber with sulphur.
7. Combs, knife-handles, buttons, pen-holders, and other useful things are made from vulcanized rubber.
8. The great stout ship was wrecked in a terrible storm.
9. Can you say "six, long, slim, sleek, slippery saplings?"
10. The old oaken bucket hangs in the well.

This exercise is intended to show how much of the meaning of many sentences is in the adjectives.



LESSON XL.

KINDS OF ADJECTIVES.

Supply nouns with each of the following adjectives :

good —,	wretched —,	pretty —,
bright —,	defiant —,	weak —,
happy —,	rough —,	broad —,
obedient —,	strong —,	ugly —,
bad —,	narrow —,	dark —.

Notice that these adjectives describe the nouns they modify. They express qualities belonging to the things named.

Such adjectives are called descriptive adjectives.

Supply a noun with each of the following adjectives :

one —,	every —,	few —,
two —,	five —,	many —,
three —,	each —,	this —,
any —,	such —,	some —,
several —,	no —,	both —,
that —,	those —,	these —,
the —,	an —,	a —.

Notice that none of these adjectives describe the nouns they modify. They only point out, or indicate the number of things named, without expressing their qualities. **Such adjectives are called definitive adjectives.**

Some of the adjectives in the following poems are printed in italics.

See whether you can tell which of these are descriptive and which are definitive adjectives :

“ *Little* children, *bright* and *fair*,
 Blest with *every* needful care ;
 Always bear *this* thing in mind :
 God commands us to be *kind*.”

“ The butterflies *all* once gave a *grand* ball
 Where the roses were *sweet*, and the lilies grew *tall*.
 From the north, and the south, and the east, and the west,
 They gathered together, dressed all in their best.
 The music they had was as *fine* as could be,
 For *the* birds made a chorus high up in *each* tree.
 And along came the locust, bringing his drum,
 And a *great* *golden* bee, striking in with his hum,
 And *every* mosquito that came brought a fife,
 While with grasshoppers' fiddles the *whole* air was rife.”



A Vampire Bat.

LESSON XLI.

In the following paragraphs, determine which are descriptive adjectives, and which are definitive adjectives.

*Determine also what noun each adjective modifies.**

THE CRUEL BOYS AND THE BATS.

Two bats had been hanging by their hooked claws fast asleep, all the dark and cold weather of winter. One warm spring evening they began to move and open their eyes. The bats felt hungry after their long fast, and went in search of some food; but they had scarcely stretched their stiff leathern wings in flight, before two cruel boys saw them. The boys at once tried to catch them with a small net placed on the end of a long pole.

If these bats were as big and harmful as their cousins, the vampire

* The teacher will do well to use other suitable extracts to give the pupils exercise in determining the kinds of adjectives and what they modify. Adjectives used in predicates modify the subjects. *Big* and *harmful* are examples. They modify *bats* the subject of *were*.

bats of Madagascar, which suck people's blood and do *much other* mischief, *the* efforts to kill them would be more *reasonable*. *These* bats if let alone would only fly around *the* house and among *the* trees, on *summer* evenings, and do *no* harm except to moths and flies.

LESSON XLII.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

1. RICHARD is a *tall* boy.
2. James is *taller* than Richard.
3. William is the *tallest* boy in school.

In these sentences, the words *tall*, *taller*, and *tallest* are different forms of the same word. They express three degrees of the quality indicated by the word *tall*.

Tall expresses the first degree.

Taller expresses the second or greater degree.

Tallest expresses the third or greatest degree.

Changing the form of an adjective to express different degrees of quality is called comparison.

Each of these degrees of comparison has a name.

The first degree is named the **positive degree**.

The second degree is named the **comparative degree**.

The third degree is named the **superlative degree**.

Notice that to make the comparative degree, we join the letters *er* to the adjective; as, *tall* + *er* = *taller*. Sometimes *r* instead of *er* is used; as, *nice* + *r* = *nicer*.

To make the superlative degree, we join *est* to the adjective ;
as, tall + est = tallest. Sometimes *st* is used instead of *est* ; *as,*
nice + st = nicest.

Write the comparison of each of the following adjectives :

MODEL.

Positive.

Comparative.

Superlative.

small,

smaller,

smallest.

small,

nice,

large,

white,

sweet,

clean,

rich,

poor,

swift,

strong,

cold,

thick.

Use adjectives in the comparative form before each of the following nouns. Then use in a sentence each expression thus formed :

MODEL.—Day. *Colder* day. This is a *colder* day than yesterday.

(cold) day,

(strong) boy,

(large) dog,

(sweet) taste,

(white) cloth,

(small) key,

(swift) horse,

(thick) board,

(nice) cat.

Use adjectives in the superlative form before each of the following nouns. Then use in a sentence each expression thus formed :

MODEL.—Knife. *Sharpest* knife. Philip owns the *sharpest* knife in school.

(sharp) knife,

(cross) hen,

(short) pencil,

(dirty) hands,

(long) lesson,

(wide) window,

(hot) iron,

(hard) problem,

(deep) snow.

LESSON XLIII.

MORE ABOUT COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

ALL adjectives are not compared.*

It sounds better to say *a more awkward boy*, than to say *an awkwarder boy*.

It sounds better to say *the most beautiful rose*, than to say *the beautifulest rose*.

When it sounds better to use the words *more* and *most* before an adjective to make it express quality in the greater degrees, we do not use *er* or *est*.

The words *more* and *most* used with the adjective, make it have the same meaning as it gets by comparison.

Busier and *busiest* sound well.

Certainer and *certainest* do not sound well.

More certain and *most certain* are the correct forms.

Which of the following adjectives may be compared?

narrow,	crooked,	beautiful,	strong,
late,	wise,	merry,	happy.
fragrant,	wonderful,	natural,	

Use **more** and **most** with those not admitting of comparison by *er* and *est*.

* TO THE TEACHER.—The author believes it unwise to have children taught that placing the words *more* and *most* before an adjective is comparison of the adjective. It has long been called a mode of comparison, but it really is only giving the adjective a modifier. In *more* and *most* is found the comparison, not in the adjective. They are the comparative and superlative forms of *much*, and are used with adjectives to give them the same meaning they would have if they were compared. They are modifiers, not inflections. It makes it much easier for children to learn it this way, because it is the truth.

Less and **least** are used with an adjective when you wish to make it mean the opposite of what *more* and *most* makes it mean; as, *crooked, less crooked, least crooked.*

Use less and least in this way with the following adjectives:

beautiful, wonderful, fragrant, natural.



LESSON XLIV.

THIS AND THAT.

This building is a store.

That building is a dwelling.

Notice these two adjectives, *this* and *that*.

What is the number of the noun *building*?

If we change it to the plural number, how does it change the adjectives?

These buildings are stores.

Those buildings are dwellings.

Notice that *these* is the plural of *this*, and *those* is the plural of *that*.

When shall we use *this* or *these*?

When shall we use *that* or *those*?

This building (near me) is a store.

That building (farther away) is a dwelling.

These buildings (near) are stores.

Those buildings (more distant) are dwellings.

This and its plural ***these*** are used when speaking of the nearer of two objects.

That and its plural those are used when speaking of the more distant of two objects.

Fill the following blanks with this or these, and that or those, and state the meaning thus expressed :

1. ——— sled is mine, and ——— sled is yours.
2. ——— are peaches, and ——— are pears.
3. ——— tree by us is a maple, but ——— one across the way is an oak.
4. Where are ——— candies I bought last night.
5. Here they are, on ——— table.
6. ——— knife is much sharper than ——— knife.
7. ——— apples on ——— tree are much better than ——— apples on ——— tree.
8. ——— daisies in ——— field are beautiful.



LESSON XLV.

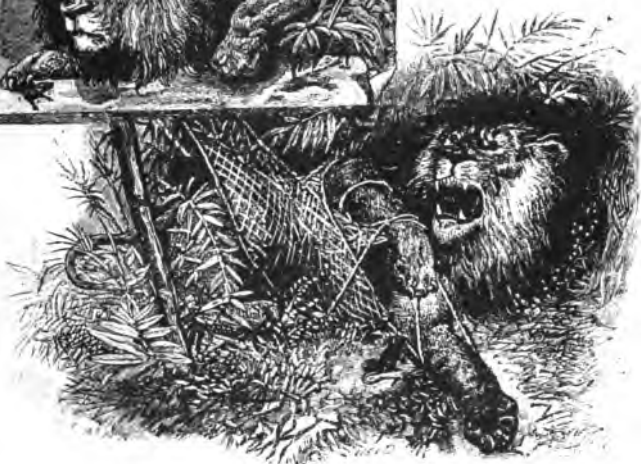
REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Why should we review ?
2. What is an adjective ?
3. Name and define the two kinds of adjectives.
4. Are adjectives important ? Why ?
5. Write the story of the cruel boys and the bats.
6. Describe the vampire bats.
7. What is meant by comparison of adjectives ?
8. How are the different forms made ?
9. Are all adjectives compared ?
10. How are adjectives, not compared, made to express different degrees ?



LESSON XLVI.

A AND AN.



A book.	An apple.	A fine horse.	An unhappy boy.
A slate.	An eraser.	A big ship.	An unsafe ship.
A watch.	An inkstand.	A log cabin.	An angry man.
A pear.	An orange.	A lazy boy.	An easy lesson.

Notice when we use the adjective *a* and when *an*.

A and *an* have the same meaning.

Fill the following blanks with a or an :

1. ——— strong lion caught ——— mouse.
2. ——— inclination to eat the mouse was followed by ———
determination to release it.
3. ——— day later ——— enemy's snare caught the lion.

4. The mouse gnawed ——— few strands of the rope, and thus set free ——— old friend.
5. Do you know how men set ——— snare for ——— lion?
6. With what do they bait ——— snare?
7. Is ——— lion stronger than ——— ox?
8. Would it require ——— strong net to hold ——— lion?
6. Would it require ——— exceedingly strong net to hold ——— angry lion?
10. ——— lion, ——— leopard, ——— elephant, ——— ostrich, and ——— zebra were on exhibition.



LESSON XLVII.

Write a story about the Lion and the Mouse.



LESSON XLVIII.

OTHER MODIFIERS.

You have learned that adjectives are used with nouns to modify their meaning (see Lesson XXXVI).

Perhaps you have noticed that a group of words may be used in the same way.

1. The *brindle* cow is eating grass.
2. The cow *in the meadow* is eating grass.

In the first sentence, the adjective *brindle* modifies the noun *cow*.

In the second sentence, the group of words *in the meadow* also modifies the noun *cow*.

A group of words like this, is called a **phrase**.

A phrase is made up of a group of words related to each other in meaning, and expressing only a part of a thought.

When a group of words expresses a complete thought, what do we call it? (See Lesson I.)

Determine what the phrases in the following sentences modify :

1. The tick *of a watch* was heard in the room.
2. The cackling *of geese* saved Rome.
3. The little mouse *in the trap* was badly frightened.
4. Car wheels *made of paper* are now used.
5. The crow *in the cornfield* was frightened away.
6. He broke the handle *of his hoe*.
7. He lost control *of his bicycle*.

In the following sentences, change the adjectives to phrases :

MODEL.—Houses *built of glass* are habitations *without safety*.

1. *Glass* houses are *unsafe* habitations.
2. John's watch has a *gold* chain.
3. *Florida* oranges are delicious fruit.
4. *January* weather is cold.
5. We make *wheat* bread.
6. We wear *leather* shoes.
7. *Little* boats should keep near shore.

In the following sentences change the phrases into adjectives :

MODEL.—*Evil* communications corrupt *good* manners.

1. Vessels *of large size* may venture more, but boats *of very small size* should keep near shore.
2. Hands *in great number* make work *easily done*.
3. Communications, *with evil associates*, corrupt manners *of the right kind*.
4. Men *of few words* are the men *of the best kind*.
5. Leaks *of small size* sink ships *of great size*.

LESSON XLIX.

RELATION WORDS.

THE relation existing between a phrase and the word to which it belongs is often shown by one of the little words **in, to, at, upon, by, over, with,** etc.

These words used thus are called **prepositions**.

A preposition is a relation word.

Supply prepositions in the following paragraph, where there are blanks:

Henry's mother sent him —— the store to buy some sugar. She told him to return as soon as possible because she needed the sugar to use —— some fruit she was preserving. —— his way home, he met another boy —— the road, and they went off —— the woods to gather nuts. Henry forgot all —— his mother's request, and when they left the woods, he forgot all —— the sugar too, and left it lying —— a log. When nearly home he happened to think —— it, and hurried back to find it. But it was nearly dark when he reached the wood the second time, and he could not find it. He did not get home until long —— dark. His father was very much displeased —— him, and to make him more thoughtful —— the future, sent him —— bed —— any supper.

You notice that prepositions have very little meaning. They are merely relation words. For this reason they are more easily supplied when omitted from a sentence, than nouns or adjectives are.

In a phrase, there is always one word, called **the principal word**, related in meaning to the word the phrase modifies. It is

important to be able to point out this **principal word** and indicate its relation to the other word.

MODEL.—The top *of the bean-stalk* seemed very high.

Of the bean-stalk is a phrase.

This phrase modifies the noun *top*.

The principal term of this phrase is the word *bean-stalk*.

The preposition *of* expresses the relation of the noun bean-stalk to the noun *top*, which the phrase modifies.

Point out the phrases in the following sentences. Name the principal term in each phrase, and indicate the office of the preposition as in the model:

1. The bird in the hand is the most desirable.
2. The writing on the wall made the king tremble.
3. The rod of Moses smote the rock.
4. The waters in the rock gushed forth.
5. Bucephalus was the name of Alexander's horse.
6. A cat in mittens catches no mice.
7. Procrastination is the thief of time.
8. Kindness to old people is always rewarded.
9. The selfish dog in the manger kept away the hungry cow.
10. Nobody but me went.

Use the following prepositions in short sentences:

in,	above,	around,
into,	under,	beyond,
of,	from,	between,
for,	upon,	behind,
with,	over,	before.



LESSON L.

A SELECTION TO BE STUDIED.**THE DUEL.**

The gingham dog and the calico cat
Side by side on the table sat ;
'Twas half past twelve, and what do you think !
Neither of them had slept a wink.
And the old Dutch clock and Chinese plate
Seemed to know, as sure as fate,
There was going to be an awful spat.

(I wasn't there,—I simply state
What was told to me by the Chinese plate.)

And the gingham dog went "bow-wow-wow !"
And the calico cat replied "me-ow !"
And the air was streaked for an hour or so
With fragments of gingham and calico,

While the old Dutch clock in the chimney place
Up with its hands before its face,
For it always dreaded a family row !

(Now mind, I'm simply telling you
What the old Dutch clock declares is true.)

The Chinese plate looked very blue,
And wailed, "Oh, dear ! what shall we do !"
But the gingham dog and the calico cat
Wallowed this way, and tumbled that,
And utilized every tooth and claw
In the awfulest way you ever saw ;
And, oh ! how the gingham and calico flew !

(Don't think that I exaggerate ;
I got this from the Chinese plate.)

Next morning where the two had sat,
They found no trace of the dog or cat ;
And some folks think unto this day
That burglars stole that pair away ;
But the truth about that cat and pup
Is, that they ate each other up.
Now, what do you really think of that ?

(The old Dutch clock, it told me so,
And that is how I came to know.)

EUGENE FIELD.

1. *Read the poem carefully.**

* TO THE TEACHER.—This should be divided into several lessons to suit the ability of the pupils, and the time at their disposal. A week spent in the study of such a selection is well spent.

Eugene Field was a journalist. He was born in St. Louis in 1850, and died in Chicago in 1895. He wrote many interesting and humorous sketches in both prose and verse. His poems for children are his best productions in verse. He has been called "poet-laureate of the little folk."

2. Answer these questions.

What is a "duel?" What is meant by a "gingham dog?" a "calico cat;" a "Dutch clock;" a "Chinese plate?" What made the Chinese plate look "very blue?" What do we mean when we say people *look blue*, or *feel blue*? What is a "spat?" What is "a family row?" Did this duel occur in the day or in the night? What time? Who saw it? What do "wallowed," "utilized," "exaggerate," and "burglars" mean? Who wrote this poem? Who was Eugene Field?

3. Write the story of the poem in your own words, without looking at the book.

4. Commit the poem to memory.

5. Recite it. See how well you can express the meaning.



LESSON LI.

ABOUT QUOTATION MARKS.

1. "FATHER," said Harry one day, "A boy hid in the woods, and called me names."

2. "What did he call you?" asked the father.

3. "He began by mocking me," said Harry. "He said every thing I did, and finally called me a saucy fellow."

4. "Harry," said his father, "you have been listening to an echo. You must have used the taunting name first."

You will notice in the foregoing sentences, there are three persons speaking: Harry, his father, and the one who tells the incident.

Harry's words, and his father's words, are copied by the one who tells the story.

When we copy the exact words of another we **quote**.

The words quoted are called a quotation.

To show that words are quoted, we use these marks ("") at the beginning, and these (") at the end of the quotation.

The words of the person using the quotation are usually separated from the words of the quotation, by commas.

Quotations that would make sense if used alone, always begin with a capital letter.

Copy the following sentences, observing how the quotation marks, capital letters, and commas are used:



1. "Oh! Dick," cried Tom, "do you know what my father gave me last week?"
2. "No," said Richard, "tell me what he gave you."
3. "He gave me a pair of beautiful young gray squirrels," said Tom.

4. "Where did he get them?" asked Dick eagerly.
5. "He was chopping down a tree in the wood," said Tom, "and two young squirrels were found inside the tree, which was hollow."
6. "How did he catch them?" asked Dick.
7. "When the tree fell," said Tom, "it split open and threw the little things out upon the ground. They immediately ran back into their nest of leaves, and my brother Dan threw his coat over them and thus secured them."
8. "Where do you keep them?" queried Dick.
9. "I keep them," replied Tom, "in a nice wire cage which has at one end a big wheel for them to play in."

Copy the following sentences, inserting commas, capital letters, periods, question marks, and quotation marks where they belong:

1. honey-bee said little mabel what are you doing on that rose
2. i am sucking the sweet juice from this flower my little girl said the bee
3. you have a very pretty plush coat and such lovely gauze wings i should like to take you in my hand little bee said mabel
4. i am glad you like my coat and my wings said the bee but if you touch me i shall hurt you with my sting
5. my sting has poison on it said the bee it is the only weapon i have with which to punish people who interfere with me
6. what makes you so much afraid of being disturbed said mabel
7. i am very busy replied the bee it will take me all summer to gather and store enough honey to keep me from starving in winter
8. one cold day in the fall a starving grasshopper met an ant who was spreading grain in the sun to dry the grasshopper begged her to give him a few grains to prevent his dying from hunger what were you doing all summer asked the ant i sang replied the grasshopper if you sang all summer you may dance all winter was the ant's reply



LESSON LII.

CONTRACTIONS AND QUOTATIONS.

Explain all the contractions and quotations in the following poem. Then commit the poem to memory so as to be able to recite it well.

A TEMPERANCE SONG.

I asked a sweet robin, one morning in May,
Who sang in the apple tree over the way,
What 'twas he was singing so sweetly about,
For I'd tried a long time and couldn't find out.
"Oh, I'm sure," he replied, "you cannot guess wrong;
Don't you know I am singing a temperance song?"

"Teetotal? why, that's the first word of my lay;
And then don't you see how I twitter away?"

'Tis because I've just dipped my beak in the spring,
And brushed the fair face of the brook with my wing.
Cold water ! cold water ! that's my sweet song,
And I love to keep singing it all day long.

And now my dear miss, won't you give me a crumb
For my dear little nestlings, waiting at home ?
And one thing besides,—since my story you've heard,
I hope you'll remember the lay of the bird ;
And never forget, while you list to my song,
All the birds to the cold-water army belong."



LESSON LIII.

SUBSTITUTES FOR NOUNS.

I and We.

HERE are two ways of saying the same thing.

1. John lived with *his* grandmother, and *he* was very kind to *her*.
He tried to relieve *her* of work and worry whenever *he* could.
2. John lived with *John's* grandmother, and *John* was very kind to
John's grandmother. *John* tried to relieve *John's grandmother* of work
and worry whenever *John* could.

Which is the better way ? Why ?

How do we avoid repeating the words *John's*, *John*, and *John's grandmother* so many times.

The words used as substitutes for nouns, are called pronouns.

When the person speaking, wishes to avoid the use or repetition of his own name, he may use the pronoun I.

My is the form of **I** to denote possession.

Me is its form when it is the object * of a verb, or is the principal term after a preposition.

1. I love pets.
2. **My** pets are tame.
3. The pets love **me**, or The pets run **to me**.

I, **my**, and **me**, like nouns, have plural forms.

We is the plural of **I**.

Our is the plural of **my**.

Us is the plural of **me**.

1. **We** love pets.
2. **Our** pets are tame.
3. The pets love **us**, or The pets run **to us**.

Singular. Plural.

I, **we**, = used as subjects.

My, **our**, = used as possessives.

Me, **us**, = used as objects, or with prepositions.

These six forms of **I** may be used as substitutes for the name of the person speaking.

I is called the personal pronoun of the first person;—a **personal pronoun**, because it is substituted for the name of a person;—**of the first person**, because that person is the speaker of the sentence.

*Copy the following sentences, filling each blank with one of the six forms of the pronoun **I**.*

* TO THE TEACHER.—The teacher will need to explain the terms *object* and *preposition* as used here. This can be done by referring to the Lesson LXV. in verbs and Lesson XLIX. in prepositions.

1. ——— have a dog.
2. ——— also have a playmate.
3. Fred is ——— playmate's name.
4. ——— often play together.
5. Fido is the name of ——— dog.
6. Fido loves ——— both.
7. ——— both love Fido.
8. Fred gave Fido to ——— on ——— birthday.
9. ——— birthdays are only a week apart.
10. Fido allows ——— to put harness on him.

State the office of each pronoun supplied.

Mine is used instead of **my** when the name of the thing possessed is omitted; as, This dog is *mine*. *Mine* is larger than yours.

Ours is used instead of *our* also, when the name of the thing possessed is omitted.



LESSON LIV.

MORE ABOUT PRONOUNS.

Singular uses of *You*.

JOSEPH, you have grown,	illustrates	<i>You</i> as subject (singular).
I scarcely knew you ,	"	<i>You</i> as object.
Your appearance has changed,	"	<i>Your</i> as possessive.
How has it been with you ?	"	<i>You</i> with a preposition.

Plural uses of *You*.

Men, you are cowards,	illustrates	<i>You</i> as subject (plural).
I despise you ,	"	<i>You</i> as object.
Your country is dishonored,	"	<i>Your</i> as possessive.
I shall separate from you .	"	<i>You</i> with a preposition.

The pronoun used as a substitute for the person *spoken to*, is **you**. It has the same form in all uses, except that the possessive form is **your**. Whether it represents one or more than one the form is the same.*

This was not always true.

Once *you* was used to represent plural nouns only. Now it is also used to represent singular nouns, but its predicate is still a plural verb.

Use the plural verbs are, were, or have in each blank of the following sentences. Copy the sentences :

1. You —— once an honored citizen.
2. You —— now a villain.
3. John, where —— you ?
4. Where —— you been ?
5. Why —— you late to school yesterday ?
6. Why —— you so careless about your attendance ?
7. —— you been to school to-day ?
8. —— you kept after school by the teacher ?
9. —— you studied your lesson for to-morrow ?

State the use of you or your in each sentence ; that is, whether it is the subject, object, possessive, or is used with a preposition.

Yours is used instead of **your** when the name of the thing possessed is omitted ; as, This dog is *yours*, or *Yours* is larger than mine.

You is called the personal pronoun of the second person. By "the second person" is meant the person spoken to.

* *Thou* is the old singular form of *you*. Its possessive form is *thy*. Its object form is *thee*. It is still used in the singular instead of *you*, by members of the Society of Friends.

Find and name the personal pronouns in the following stanzas :

Busy-bee, busy-bee,
Always on the wing,
Wait a bit, where you have lit,
And tell me why you sing.

Come just a minute, come
From your rose so red !
“ Hum, hum, hum, hum ”
Was all the bee said.

Busy-bee, busy-bee,
Always light and gay,
Seems to me, busy-bee,
Your work is only play.

But while I mused, I learned
The secret of her way :
Do my part with cheerful heart,
And turn my work to play.



LESSON LV.

MORE ABOUT PRONOUNS.

1. Joe had a watch and wished to sell it.
2. Frank said **he** would like to buy it.
3. Ethel declared **she** would not have it.
4. She wanted **her** brother to buy a gold watch.
5. Joe declared **his** watch to be a good time-keeper.
6. Frank said **its** case suited **him**.
7. So **they** disputed.
8. **Their** teacher advised **them** to end the dispute.

All the pronouns printed in heavy type in the foregoing sentences, are used as substitutes for the *names of things spoken of*.

State the office of each pronoun printed in heavy type.

his }
he } are different forms of **he**, and are used as substitutes
him } for names of males.

she }
her } are different forms of **she**, and are used as substitutes
for names of females.

it }
its } are different forms of **it**, and are used as substitutes
for names of things without sex.

they }
their } are used as substitutes for the plurals of names of
them } things spoken of.

Study the first eight sentences in this lesson, and point out the subject forms of these pronouns.

Point out the possessive forms.

Point out the object forms.

Which have the same form for subject and object?

These three pronouns, **he**, **she**, and **it** (with their different forms), are called **personal pronouns of the third person**. By "the third person" is meant **the person or thing spoken of**.

Theirs is used instead of **their** when the name of the thing possessed is omitted; as, This book is *theirs*, or *Theirs* is torn.

Copy the following sentences, using personal pronouns of the third person for the nouns in italics:

1. Spring is coming. *Spring* will soon be here.
2. See the trees. *The trees* are putting forth leaves.
3. These trees bear fruit. *The fruit* is luscious.
4. Call the dog. I suspect *the dog* is chasing the cat.

5. Where is Ann's knife? I fear *Ann's knife* is lost.
6. Jennie found my knife. *Jennie* has good eyes.
7. Where is John? Is *John* at home.
8. Will has some pears. *Will* is fond of *pears*.
9. Will eats one of *the pears*. *The flavor of the pear* is delicious.
10. Will and *Will's* father till a large farm.
11. Will and *Will's* father's farm is near the city.



LESSON LVI.

AFTER *IT IS* AND *IT WAS*.

THE subject form of the personal pronoun should be used after the expressions *It is* and *It was*.

We should say

It is I	}	singular forms.
It is he		
It is she		

It is we	}	plural forms.
It is they		

Supply the subject form of the personal pronouns after It was in the following expressions:

1. Who called? It was _____.
2. Mary, who whispered? It was _____.
3. Did you or they make the noise? It was _____.
4. Did you or Jane lose a pencil? It was _____.
5. Pupils, were you in the wrong, or was it some one else? It was _____.

*Say many times,**

It is I,	It was I,
It is he,	It was he,
It is she,	It was she,
It is we,	It was they,
It is they.	It was we.



LESSON LVII.

REVIEW OF PRONOUNS.

1. WHAT is a pronoun?
2. Why do we need to use pronouns?
3. Name the pronoun of the first person.
4. How many forms has *I*?
5. What are its singular forms?
6. What are its plural forms?
7. Make a sentence containing the singular subject form of *I*.
8. Make a sentence containing the singular object form.
9. Make a sentence containing the singular possessive form.
10. Make a sentence containing the plural subject form.
11. Make a sentence containing the plural object form.
12. Make a sentence containing the plural possessive form.
13. What does *plural* mean?
14. Why is *I* called a personal pronoun?
15. Why is it of the first person?
16. When are the forms *mine* and *ours* used?

* TO THE TEACHER.—The repetition of these expressions many times will educate the pupil's ear to the correct form. Mistakes in the use of personal pronouns are more common in oral language, than in written.

LESSON LVIII.

ANOTHER REVIEW LESSON.

1. NAME the pronoun of the second person.
2. Why is it a personal pronoun ?
3. How many forms has *you* ?
4. What is the subject form ?
5. What is the possessive form ?
6. Are there any plural forms ?
7. What form is used as a substitute for a plural noun used as subject ; as object ; as possessive ?
8. Was *you* always used in the singular ?
9. What is true of the predicate of *you* ?
10. What is the old singular form for *you* ?
11. What is the possessive form of *thou* ?
12. What is its object form ?
13. When is *yours* used ?
14. Make sentences to illustrate all the forms of *you*.



LESSON LIX.

ANOTHER REVIEW LESSON.

1. NAME the pronouns of the third person.
2. Which of them is used as a substitute for names of males ?
3. Which is used as a substitute for names of females ?
4. Which is used as a substitute for names of things that have no sex ?

5. What is the plural pronoun corresponding to the singular forms *he, she, and it*?
6. What is the possessive form of *they*?
7. What is the object form?
8. When is *theirs* used?
9. Make a sentence containing the singular subject form *he*.
10. Make a sentence containing the singular possessive form of *he*.
11. Make a sentence containing the singular object form of *he*.
12. Make a sentence containing all the singular forms of *she* and *it*.
13. Make a sentence containing the different forms of *they*.
14. What forms of pronouns are used after *It is* and *It was*?
15. Make sentences containing the different uses.



LESSON LX.

THE LIFE OF THE SENTENCE.

THERE is one word in every sentence that is more important than any other word in the sentence. Without this important word the sentence would not express a thought; and if it did not express a thought, you know, it would not be a sentence.

The name of this important word is the **verb**. It is the part of the sentence that *tells* something. It is always in the predicate of the sentence.

Sometimes the verb alone is the predicate; as, Birds *fly*.

Sometimes the verb and its modifiers form the predicate; as, Birds *live* on seeds and insects.

The verb sometimes expresses action ; as, Horses *run*. Here *run* expresses action.

The verb sometimes states that something *exists*, or has *being* ; as, There *are* fish in the sea. Here *are* asserts *being*,—asserts that the fish have existence.

The verb sometimes expresses the *state of being* or *condition* of something ; as, The boy *sleeps*. Here *sleeps* asserts condition.

We say, therefore, that **the verb expresses action, being, or condition** of some subject.

Supply verbs for the following subjects :

Hens _____.	The wind _____.
The cow _____.	Wasps _____.
Horses _____.	Babies _____.
Colts _____.	Birds _____.
Flowers _____.	Dogs _____.
Ships _____.	Bells _____.

Copy the following sentences, supplying verbs for the blanks in each :

1. The children _____ on the bank of a river.
2. One child _____ into the water.
3. A large dog _____ the child from drowning.
4. Bees _____ honey from flowers.
5. Bees _____ honey in hives for winter food.
6. The old hen _____ her nest under the barn.
7. The old hen _____ out from her hiding place with seven little chicks.
8. Jane _____ an invitation to the party.
9. The rain _____, and the floods _____, and the winds _____ and _____ upon that house ; and it _____ not, for it _____ founded upon a rock.

LESSON LXI.

MORE ABOUT VERBS.

SOMETIMES several words taken together form a verb; as, Spring *has come*.

Here *has come* form one verb. The two words taken together assert the action.

The flowers *have been frozen*.

Here the three words *have been frozen* form the verb. These three taken together assert the action.

Point out the verbs in the following sentences and state which contain one and which more than one word:

1. John's father owns an orange grove in Florida.
 2. John had seen orchards of apple trees.
 3. He had never seen an orange orchard.
- (The word *never* here stands between the parts of the verb.)
4. An orange orchard is called an orange grove.
 5. Oranges hang to the trees by stems.
 6. They are like apples in this respect.
 7. Some oranges have rough rinds.
 8. The rind is the skin of the orange.
 9. The rind is filled with little oil-sacks.
 10. Orange oil is made from these oil-sacks.
 11. Inside the rind the pulp is found.
 12. We eat the pulp of oranges.
 13. The pulp is arranged in folds.
 14. These folds are called segments.
 15. Each segment is covered with a thin skin.
 16. This thin skin can be removed easily.
 17. Then you will find great quantities of cells.

18. A cell is a sack.
19. Each cell is filled with juice.
20. The orange has no core.
21. Its seeds are encased in large cells.
22. The color of the orange is called *orange*.
23. Cut an orange seed.
24. Examine it closely.
25. Describe it to your teacher.



LESSON LXII.

A PECULIAR FAMILY.

Am, is, are, was, were.

HERE are five words that need to be studied carefully in order that you may learn to use them correctly.

They are verbs. Perhaps it would be truer to say they are different forms of the same verb. Each form has its own use and its own meaning.

Am always has the pronoun *I* for its subject. It is a very particular little verb, and will have nothing to do with any other word for its subject. Out of all the thousands of nouns, there is not one that is acceptable to this little verb; and of all the pronouns, there is only this one little pronoun *I* that can be the subject of *am*.

I am.

These are two very little words.

Am is never used without **I**.

We might be tempted to call *am* a selfish little verb, if it were not so very useful. We could not possibly get along without it.

Notice the following sentences, which illustrate its uses.

I am sick,	I am lame,
I am well,	I am blind,
I am happy,	I am going home,
I am reading,	I am in trouble,
I am a teacher,	I am afraid.

These are a few—only a very few—of the uses of *I am*.

You see that while this little verb *am* is so very particular about its subject, it is not at all particular about the words that come after it in the predicate.

Make ten sentences using am in each.



LESSON LXIII.

MORE ABOUT THE PECULIAR FAMILY.

Am, is, are, was, were.

THE next member of this peculiar family is the word *is*.

It is not so particular about its company. Any noun in the singular number may be the subject of *is*, and also the singular personal pronouns of the third person, *he*, *she*, and *it*; as, *John is, man is, he is, she is, it is*, etc.

Two connected nouns in the singular must have a plural verb; as, The *man* and the *boy are*, etc.

While *is* accepts singular subjects, *are*, the plural of *is*, takes plural subjects; as, *we are, they are, boys are*, etc.

There is, however, one singular subject that is acceptable to this verb *are*,—just one of all the thousands we have in our language. This is the singular pronoun *you*.

We say *you are*, never *you is*.

*Supply subjects for **is** and **are** in the following sentences :*

1. ——— and ——— **are** pupils in this school.
2. ——— **are** anxious to learn the correct use of language.
(Supply a pronoun.)
3. Many ——— of this school **are** studying grammar.
4. ——— **is** postmaster in our town.
(Use a proper name with a title.)
5. ——— **is** a very accommodating postmaster.
(Supply a pronoun.)



LESSON LXIV.

MORE ABOUT THE PECULIAR FAMILY.

Am, is, are, was, and were.

Was is always used to tell about the past.

It will accept for its subject any noun in the singular number, and any singular pronoun except *you*.

It seems to have been offended when *you* was brought into the ranks of singular subjects. We may say,

I was, he was, John was, horse was, anything was, but never you was.

Were is the plural of **was**. *Were* also tells of the past. It takes for its subject any plural noun or pronoun. You see it is quite liberal ; it makes no exceptions.

We may say, *we were, they were, things were, people were*, etc.

*Copy the following sentences, supplying subjects for **was** and **were**.*

1. ——— **was** the tallest king of the Israelites.
2. The ——— **was** feeding her young.

3. ——— **was** gathering bugs and worms for them.

(Supply a pronoun.)

4. The ——— **was** trying to catch a hen for his supper.

5. ——— **was** too cunning for the fox, and roosted beyond his reach. (Supply a pronoun.)

6. The ——— and the ——— **were** watching each other.

Supply was or were as predicates in each of the following sentences:

1. The boy ——— flying his kite.
2. His two sisters ——— watching him.
3. His kite ——— made of paper and thin strips of wood.
4. The paper and the wood ——— fastened together with paste.
5. Bits of paper ——— tied together to make the kite's tail.
6. ——— you there to see the kite?
7. ——— the kite high in the air?
8. Yes, it ——— very high.
9. There ——— many boys out flying kites.
10. They ——— having fine sport.



LESSON LXV.

A FAMILY OF EIGHT.

1. JOHN studies his lesson.
2. John **is** studying his lesson.
3. John **has** studied his lesson.
4. John **will** study his lesson.
5. John **does** study his lesson.
6. John **must** study his lesson.
7. John **may** study his lesson.
8. John **can** study his lesson.
9. John **shall** study his lesson.

Notice how the little words *is*, *has*, *will*, *does*, *must*, *may*, *can*, and *shall*, help the verb *study* express its various meanings.

Will study has a very different meaning from what it would have if *will* were not used.

The same is true of the other combinations.

These eight little verbs, whose chief office is to help other verbs, are called **auxiliary verbs**.

The word *auxiliary* means **helping**.

A verb and its auxiliary verb are considered together, as one verb. *Will study*, in the fourth sentence, is called a verb, just as *studies* in the first sentence is.

*Copy the following sentences, filling each blank with one of the auxiliary * verbs :*

1. William ——— *broken* his sled.
2. Mr. Wood ——— *mend* William's sled.
3. He ——— *mend* it once before, but he ——— *broken* it a second time.
4. It ——— *snowing* to-day, and if his sled ——— *mended*, William ——— coast to-morrow.
5. He ——— *take* care of his sled, for it ——— *break* more easily next time.
6. He ——— not *load* it too heavily, or he ——— *ruin* it.
7. William and his brother ——— *used* this sled many winters.
8. The snow ——— *fallen* all day, and the ground ——— *covered* six inches deep.

* *Do* is another form of *did*; *would* is another form of *will*; *could* of *can*; *might* of *may*; *should* of *shall*; *had* of *has*.

Am, *are*, *were*, and *is* are also different forms of the same verb. (See Practical English Grammar, Lesson 84.)

9. If it —— not *become* too warm there —— be fine sleighing and coasting.

10. Boys and girls —— *take* care to keep warm, or they —— *freeze* their fingers and toes.

Point out the verbs you have made by supplying auxiliary verbs.

LESSON LXVI.

TRANSITIVE VERBS AND OBJECTS.

John saws wood.

What is the subject of this sentence? Why? (See Les. XI.)

What is the predicate of this sentence? Why? (See Les. XI.)

What is the verb of the predicate?

What kind of word is *wood*? Why?

Certain verbs like *saws* always have a noun to help them express the predicate meaning. If we should say *John saws*, you can see that the predicate meaning would not all be expressed. It takes the noun *wood* to complete the predicate.

Notice that the subject *John* names the one who performs the action.

The verb *saws* asserts the action performed.

The noun *wood* names what receives the action.

A verb expressing action received by a noun is called a transitive verb; as, *Horses eat oats*.

Here *eat* is a transitive verb.

The word which receives the action of a transitive verb is called **an object**.

Oats is the object of the transitive verb *eat*.

In the following sentences, there are eight transitive verbs, and two not transitive. Find the transitive verbs. State in writing what word is the object of each, and why.

MODEL.—Birds built nests.

Build is a transitive verb. The noun *nests* is its object, because it names what receives the action expressed by the verb.

1. Hens lay eggs.
2. Cows eat grass.
3. Cats catch mice.
4. Cain slew Abel.
5. Dogs run swiftly.
6. The man reads his paper.
7. The whale has a small throat.
8. The little bird built her nest in a tree.
9. The fish swam away.
10. The squirrel can crack a nut.

In the tenth sentence, the verb consists of two words. Which are they?



LESSON LXVII.

SOME REVIEW QUESTIONS.

Answer the following questions about the twenty-five sentences in Lesson LXI.

1. What is the subject of each sentence?
2. What is the predicate of each?
3. In how many is the verb one word?
4. In how many is the verb two words?

5. In how many is the verb more than two words?
6. How many of the verbs are transitive verbs? *
7. How many possessive nouns or pronouns are found in these sentences?
8. How many pronouns are found? How used?
9. Point out the adjectives used.
10. Which are descriptive adjectives? What does each modify?
11. Which are definitive adjectives? What does each modify?
12. Point out the phrases used? What does each modify?
13. Name the preposition of each phrase.
14. Name the principal term of each phrase.



LESSON LXVIII.

WORDS JOINED IN MEANING TO VERBS.

1. JOHN awoke *early*.
2. He slept *soundly*.
3. He went *away*.

Notice that *early* joined in meaning to the verb *awoke*, changes the meaning so as to make the verb tell *when* he awoke.

Soundly joined in meaning to the verb *slept*, changes the meaning so as to make the verb tell *how* he slept.

Away joined in meaning to the verb *went*, changes the meaning so as to make the verb tell *where* he went.

Words used to change the meaning of verbs are called *adverbs*.

* TO THE TEACHER.—In answering the questions confine the pupil's attention only to transitive verbs in the active voice. Passive voice forms are too difficult for beginners. See Lessons 89, 90, 91, and 92 in the Practical English Grammar.

Adverbs sometimes modify adjectives; as, This is a *very* good apple.

Here the word *very* modifies the adjective *good*.

What does *good* modify?

Adverbs sometimes modify other adverbs; as, John talks *quite* distinctly.

Here the word *quite* modifies the adverb *distinctly*.

What does *distinctly* modify?

What do we mean by modify? (See Lesson XXXVI.)

Point out the adverbs in the following sentences and tell what each modifies:

1. Did you ever see a peach?
2. The peach is a very pretty kind of fruit.
3. It is nearly round.
4. Its skin is covered with very fine hairs.
5. We sometimes call this hair fuzz.
6. How pretty the cheek of the peach is!
7. Where did the peach grow?
8. In the centre of the peach is a very rough, brown stone.
9. How rich the pulp of the peach is!
10. Sometimes the pulp clings to the stone.
11. The peach is then called a clingstone.
12. In a freestone peach, the pulp does not cling to the stone.



LESSON LXIX.

MORE ABOUT ADVERBS.

1. JOHN will return *soon*.
2. Robert will return *sooner*.
3. Fred will return *soonest*.

In these sentences the adverbs *soon*, *sooner*, and *soonest* express the time of returning, in different degrees.

Changing the form of the adverb to express different degrees is called comparison.

The comparative and superlative degrees are formed from the positive in the same way as with adjectives. (See Lesson XLII.) Only a few adverbs can be compared.

Write the comparison of each of the following adverbs :

soon,	often,	far,
long,	hard,	(much).

The comparison of *much* is irregular.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
much,	more,	most.

Like adjectives, many adverbs that cannot be compared may be made to express different degrees, by being modified by *more* and *most*; as, I laugh *merrily*; Jane laughs *more merrily*; Harriet laughs *most merrily*.

Copy the following sentences, filling each blank with one of the adverbs in the following lists :

swiftly,	correctly,	patiently,	soon,
always,	very,	back,	rapidly.
exceedingly,	never,		

1. John will return ———.
2. He came ——— yesterday.
3. He walks ———.
4. It is ——— dark.
5. He will ——— go away.
6. The river flows ———.

7. He wrote that sentence ———.
8. He waited ——— for the train.
9. Owls have ——— large eyes.
10. Everybody should ——— be polite.

Make sentences in which the following words shall be used as adverbs :

here,	often,	soon,	really,
when,	never,	brightly,	badly,
fast,	far,	much,	seldom.

LESSON LXX.

WORDS THAT CONNECT.

THE longer way : John goes to school.
Mary goes to school.

The shorter way : John *and* Mary go to school.

Notice that by means of the little word *and* we are enabled to connect the two subjects *John* and *Mary*, and use the same predicate for both.

John rides to school.
Mary walks to school.

The same little word *and* enables us to connect these two statements into one sentence, and say,

John rides to school, *and* Mary walks.

Point out the connecting words in the following sentences, and state whether they connect words or statements :

1. An insect has a head, *and* a thorax, *and* an abdomen.
2. A grasshopper has six legs *and* four wings.
3. Bees *and* wasps are insects.

4. Do you like birds *or* insects best?
5. John rides, *but* James walks.
6. I will go skating *if* you do.
7. John did it, *for* I saw him.
8. Peaches *or* pears will suit me.
9. I will win, *or* die in the attempt.
10. He rejoiced, *yet* he was silent.
11. He will resign, *unless* he is paid.

These connecting words are called **conjunctions**.

1. *Make a sentence in which and shall connect two nouns.*
2. *Make a sentence in which and shall connect two statements.*
3. *Make a sentence in which or shall connect two nouns.*
4. *Make a sentence in which or shall connect two statements.*
5. *Make a sentence in which but shall be used as a connective.*
6. *Make a sentence using for as a connective.*
7. *Make a sentence using for as a preposition.*
8. *Make a sentence using if as a connective.*
9. *Make a sentence using yet as a connective.*



LESSON LXXI.

LEARNING TO USE CONJUNCTIONS.

Combine the following groups of sentences into single sentences by using conjunctions :

MODEL.

James goes to school	}	James, John, and Philip go to school.
John goes to school		
Philip goes to school		

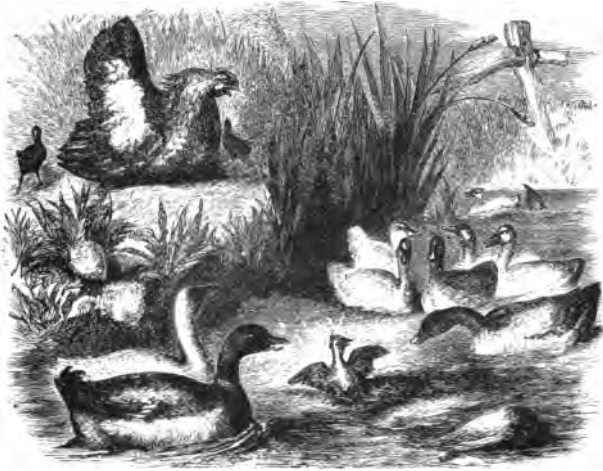
Notice that when more than two words are connected by con-

junctions, all the conjunctions may be omitted except the last. This is to improve the sound, when it is read or spoken.

1. The robin builds its nest of coarse hay.
The robin builds its nest of mud.
The robin builds its nest of sticks.
2. The duck's feathers are soft.
The duck's feathers are oily.
The hen's feathers are stiff.
The hen's feathers are dry.

To combine the foregoing sentences use *and* twice and *but* once.

3. The duck has a broad bill.
The duck has a flat bill.
The hen has a short bill.
The hen has a curved bill.
4. The duck's legs are placed far back on the body.
The hen's legs are placed near the middle of the body.
5. Each hand has a thumb.
Each hand has four fingers.
6. Is the thumb the more useful?
Are the fingers the more useful?
7. The stomach is a powerful organ.
The stomach is injured by some substances.
8. The bones of old people are hard.
The bones of old people are brittle.
The bones of children are soft.
The bones of children bend easily.
9. Willie gathered some walnuts.
Anna gathered some walnuts.
Willie gathered some strawberries.
Anna gathered some strawberries.



LESSON LXXII.

Copy the following poem.

Be careful to begin every line with a capital letter.

Be careful to use the commas, question marks, quotation marks, and other marks correctly.

Be careful to notice the use of the apostrophe (see Lesson XXXIV.).

Count the conjunctions in this poem.

THE CHICKEN'S MISTAKE.

A little downy chick one day
 Asked leave to go on the water,
 Where she saw a duck with her brood at play,
 Swimming and splashing about her.

Indeed, she began to peep and cry,
 When her mother wouldn't let her,
 "If the ducks can swim there, why can't I?
 Are they any bigger or better?"

Then the old hen answered, "Listen to me,
And hush your foolish talking ;
Just look at your feet, and you will see
They were only made for walking."

But chicky wistfully eyed the brook,
And didn't half believe her,
For she seemed to say, by a knowing look,
Such stories couldn't deceive her.

And as her mother was scratching the ground
She muttered lower and lower,
"I know I can go there and not be drowned,
And so I think I'll show her."

Then she made a plunge where the stream was deep,
And saw too late her blunder ;
For she had hardly time to peep,
When her foolish head went under.

And now I hope her fate will show
The child my story reading,
That those who are older sometimes know
What you will do well in heeding ;

That each content in his place should dwell,
And envy not his brother ;
For any part that is acted well
Is just as good as another ;

For we all have our proper spheres below,
And this is a truth worth knowing :
You will come to grief if you try to go
Where you never were made for going.

PHCEBE CARY.

LESSON LXXIII.

WORDS EXPRESSING FEELING.

1. OH ! my tooth aches.
2. Hark ! I hear a dog barking.
3. Bow-wow ! I am little dog Dime.
4. Hurrah ! The Fourth of July is here.
5. Hush ! Don't wake the baby.
6. "Cluck ! Cluck !" said the old hen.

Study the words *oh*, *hark*, *bow-wow*, *hurrah*, *hush*, and *cluck* used in the foregoing sentences.

They are not nouns, or adjectives, or verbs, or pronouns, or any kind of word of which you have learned the name.

They are not used to express our thoughts, but they are used to express our feelings, or to imitate sounds.

We learned in Lesson VIII. about exclamatory sentences.

These are somewhat like exclamatory sentences, although they are not sentences at all. They have no subjects, no predicates, and do not express thoughts.

They are emotion words. They express those feelings that have very little or no thought mixed with them.

These emotion words are called interjections.*

The word *interjection* means *thrown between*. Interjections are expressions of emotion, or imitations of sounds, thrown in between our sentences.

* The teacher should refer to Lesson 121 of the author's larger work for full information in regard to interjections. They are not, strictly speaking, parts of speech.

Point out the interjections in the following :

1. "Bow-wow!" said the dog.
2. "Mew-mew!" said the cat.
3. "Cock-a-doodle-do!" replied the rooster, who came up to join the company.
4. "Cut-cut-cut-ah!" cackled Biddie, who always will have her say.
5. Just then the sheep walked up unobserved, and looking through the fence, startled them all by saying in loud tones, "ba-a!"
6. "You horrid creature!" shrieked Biddie, as she jumped to one side, and cast one of her fierce glances at the sheep: "If I had a voice like yours, I'd never use it."
7. "Tut-tut!" said the rooster, who tried to soothe the ruffled nature of his dame, "I think you misunderstand our woolly neighbor."
8. "Hark!" said the cat, as she began to crouch and crawl noiselessly away. "I heard a mouse squeak."
9. "Oh! You're always imagining you hear mice squeak," said the dog, who had the utmost disdain for any vermin smaller than a chipmunk.
10. Just then, "bang!" went a gun out behind the barn, and the dog sprang forward and over the fence with such a splutter as to knock Biddie over and disarrange her feathers, while the sheep had to make a big bound to prevent him from alighting on her back, as he came over the fence.
11. "Goodness gracious!" cried Biddie to her partner, "hadn't we better go somewhere by ourselves and scratch for worms? We'll get killed if we keep in such company as this."



LESSON LXXIV.

THE EIGHT KINDS OF WORDS.

You have now learned about eight different kinds of words, used to make the sentences we use in talking and writing.

In Lesson XVI. you learned about **nouns**.

In Lesson LIII. you learned about **pronouns**.

In Lesson XXXVI. you learned about **adjectives**.

In Lesson LX. you learned about **verbs**.

In Lesson LXVIII. you learned about **adverbs**.

In Lesson XLIX. you learned about **prepositions**.

In Lesson LXX. you learned about **conjunctions**.

In Lesson LXXIII. you learned about **interjections**.

These eight kinds of words are called **parts of speech**.

Every word in a sentence must be one of these *parts of speech*. No other kind of word is used. Don't you think it is interesting to know that all the thousands upon thousands of words we use, can be put in these eight classes. If you learn all there is to know about each one of these eight kinds of words, you know all about every word in the English language. *

But we must not forget that there are very many things to learn about each one of these. Just take a look at the many things we studied about nouns, between Lessons XVI. and XXXIV.;—there were *proper nouns*, *initials*, *abbreviations*, *number*, *possession*, etc., and about each of these there were many things to remember. Then, you know, many things were omitted,—left for you to learn when you are older.

But you can feel sure that after you have learned *all* about these **eight parts of speech**, you will then know all about all the words of the language.

*In the following paragraph, name the parts of speech:**

A poor man found a very large turnip in his garden.

"I will carry it to the king," he said. "I will present it to him.

* The teacher will bring out in the study of this selection as many as possible of the points that have been studied in the previous lessons,—such as punctuation, quotations, paragraphs, phrases, etc. Also have the pupil point out subjects, predicates, and modifiers where the relations are easily seen, but do not distract the pupil by calling attention to difficult constructions that he has not yet studied.

He can then see what good crops we have, and it will make him glad."

So he carried the turnip to the king's castle. The king took it, and admired its great size and beauty. Then he said some kind words to the poor man, and gave him three pieces of gold.

A rich farmer lived near the poor man. He heard about the kindness the king showed to the poor man, and he said, "I have a big calf. I will take it, and give it to the king. If he gave three pieces of gold for a turnip, he will give much more for a calf."

Then he tied a rope around the calf's neck and led it to the castle.

"Good king," said he, "I wish to make you a present of this calf. I have fed it, and brought it up with great care. It is the finest calf in the country."

The king knew the thoughts of the rich farmer. He said, "I do not want any calf. I have no use for a calf." The man begged very hard to get the king to take the gift. He said, "I will never be happy, if I must take the calf back to my home."

"Very well!" said the king, "I will take it, and in return I will give you a present. It cost me three times the value of your calf." Then he gave the farmer the big turnip.



LESSON LXXV.

Write fifteen good questions about nouns.

Make the questions ask about the things you learned in Lessons XVI. to XXXIV.

If you can make more than fifteen good questions, do so.

Write the questions so they can be easily understood, and let them ask about one thing only.

This is what is meant by a good question. You should also be able to answer all the questions you write.

LESSON LXXVI.

*See how many good questions you can write about pronouns.**

See Lessons LIII. to LVII.

LESSON LXXVII.

See how many good questions you can write about verbs.

See Lessons LX. to LXVIII.

LESSON LXXVIII.

See how many good questions you can write about adjectives and adverbs.

See Lessons LXVIII. and LXIX.

LESSON LXXIX.

See how many good questions you can write about prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

See Lessons XLIX. and LXX. and LXXIII.

* The teacher should spend enough time on this and each of the lessons on this page to secure a thorough familiarity with the parts of speech here reviewed. Make haste slowly here.

LESSON LXXX.

KINDS OF SENTENCES.

1. WHAT is a sentence ? (See Lesson I.)
2. What do we call a group of related sentences ? (See Lesson IV.)
3. In making paragraphs, what four things are important ? (See Lesson V.)
4. What is an interrogative sentence ? Write one. (See Lesson VI.)
5. What is an exclamatory sentence ? Write one. (See Lesson VIII.)
6. What is an imperative sentence ? Write one. (See Lesson VII.)
7. What is a declarative sentence ? Write one. (See Lesson IX.)
8. How should each of these four kinds of sentences be punctuated ?



LESSON LXXXI.

OTHER KINDS OF SENTENCES.

To find out whether a sentence belongs to one of these four classes, we study *its meaning*. If its meaning is a question we call it **interrogative** ; if a command, we call it **imperative** ; if it declares a fact, we call it **declarative** ; and if it expresses an emotion, we call it **exclamatory**.

Therefore, **according to meaning**, we have four kinds of sentences.

We shall now study sentences **according to their form**.

John rides.

Henry walks.

These two sentences may be united thus :

John rides and Henry walks ;

Or thus :

John rides but Henry walks.

And and *but* are the connecting words.

What are such words called? (See Lesson LXX.)

Two sentences united by a conjunction into one sentence, as in this example, form a *compound sentence*.

A sentence having one subject and one predicate is called a *simple sentence*.

Study the following sentences and state which are simple and which are compound.

1. The boy tried to ride the donkey.
2. The donkey threw him off his back.
3. The boy tried to ride the donkey, but the donkey threw him off his back.
4. The girl was going to sink, but John caught her.
5. Moses smote the rock, and the waters gushed forth.
6. Moses was angry with the Israelites.
7. Send men to Joppa, and call for Simon Peter.
8. Simon Peter was one of Christ's disciples.
9. A thorn may be small, but it pricks keenly.

Notice that when simple sentences have been united to form compound sentences, they are no longer sentences, but *parts of sentences*. They differ from other *parts of sentences*, such as phrases, in containing a subject and a predicate.

A part of a sentence containing a subject and a predicate is called a *clause*.

A simple sentence is not a *clause*, because it is not a part of a sentence.

Point out the clauses in the compound sentences above.

LESSON LXXXII.

A COMPOUND sentence may consist of more than two clauses. Here is one with three clauses :

Some men are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon them.

Notice—

1. That the clauses of compound sentences are separated by commas.

2. That when a compound sentence has more than two clauses, the conjunction is generally omitted between all but the last two.

Copy the following sentences, using marks of punctuation and capitals where they belong :

1. take plenty of exercise or your body will become weak
2. the way was long the wind was cold and the minstrel was infirm and old
3. united we stand but divided we fall
4. men may come and men may go but I go on forever
5. study this lesson carefully and you will never have any difficulty with compound sentences
6. a simple sentence has one subject and one predicate but a compound sentence has more than one
7. a clause has one subject and one predicate but a clause is not a simple sentence
8. the farmer gave the king a fine calf but he could not deceive the king
9. the little chick tried to swim but it was drowned for disobedience

LESSON LXXXIII.

CLAUSES AS MODIFIERS.

You have learned that adjectives modify nouns, that adverbs modify verbs, and that phrases modify other words.

In this lesson you will learn that clauses sometimes modify words.

1. The industrious boy will succeed.
2. The boy who is industrious will succeed.

These two sentences have the same meaning. In the first, what kind of word is *industrious*? What does it modify?

In the second sentence the clause *who is industrious* is used in the same way. It modifies the noun *boy*.

A clause used to modify a noun is called an *adjective* clause.

The boy will succeed if he is industrious.

How many clauses has this sentence?

Read the first clause.

Read the second clause.

What does the second clause modify?

A clause used to modify a verb is called an *adverb* clause.

Find the adjective and adverb clauses in the following sentences, and tell what each modifies:

1. The boy who is industrious will succeed.
2. The boy will succeed if he is industrious.
3. The boy who tried to ride the donkey, was thrown off his back.
4. The seed which we planted, has become a large tree.
5. A city that is set on a hill cannot be hid.

6. Beggars might ride, if wishes were horses.
7. John was tired, because he had worked all day.
8. You should carry an umbrella when it rains.
9. If you try hard, you will succeed.

Here the adverb clause stands first.

10. The grass is growing rapidly since it rained.
11. Never eat till you are hungry.
12. The sap, which flows from the maple trees, is boiled till it becomes sugar.

In this sentence there is one adjective clause and one adverb clause.



LESSON LXXXIV.

THE NOUN CLAUSE.

1. JOHN said that he felt sick.
2. That the earth is round has been proved.

In the first sentence, the clause, *that he felt sick* is the object of the verb *said*.

The object of a verb is usually a noun. This clause takes the place of the noun.

A clause used as a noun is called a noun clause.

In the second sentence, the clause, *that the earth is round*, is the subject of a verb. For that reason, it is also a noun clause.

Find the noun clauses in the following sentences :

1. We believe that the earth is round.
2. John said that the donkey threw him off.
3. That John was scared is certain.
4. Harry thinks that he is right.
5. That Harry is mistaken is believed by his friends.

Find the adjective clauses, the adverb clauses, and the noun clauses in the following sentences :

1. Captain Lawrence said, "Don't give up the ship."
2. Captain Lawrence, who was commander of the *Chesapeake*, said, "Don't give up the ship."
3. When Captain Lawrence was wounded, he called to his comrades, "Don't give up the ship."
4. While they were carrying Captain Lawrence below, he exclaimed, "Don't give up the ship."
5. In Trinity church-yard, in New York City, is the tomb of Captain Lawrence, who was a brave commander.
6. When the cat is away, the mice will play.
7. Persons who will not accept advice, cannot be helped.
8. That which cannot be cured, must be endured.



LESSON LXXXV.

PRACTICE IN NAMING CLAUSES.

In the following paragraph, which sentences are compound? Point out the noun clauses, the adjective clauses, and the adverb clauses :

Once there was a cobbler who sang from morning to night. He was very poor, but he was always happy. He lived near a banker who was very rich. The banker did not sing, because he was never happy. The cobbler's singing woke the banker every morning, and the banker wanted to have it stopped. He offered the cobbler a large sum of money if he would be quiet. The cobbler took the money home, but it did not make him happy. He could not sleep, because he feared that somebody would steal it. He grew sad, because he could not sing. At last he took the money from its hiding place, and he ran with it to the banker's house. "Take back your gold," he cried.

LESSON LXXXVI.

INDEPENDENT CLAUSES.

THE clauses of a compound sentence are so slightly related that they seem almost like separate sentences.

1. He was very poor, but he was always happy.
2. He was very poor. He was always happy.

The first is a compound sentence having two clauses. The second consists of two simple sentences.

Clauses that are only slightly related to each other are called *independent clauses*.

The clauses of a compound sentence are always independent clauses.

Adjective clauses, adverb clauses, and noun clauses are always closely related to the words with which they are used.

The mice will play, *when the cat is away*.

Notice how closely the adverb clause *when the cat is away*, is related to the verb *will play*, which it modifies.

Clauses closely related to the words with which they are used, are called *dependent clauses*.

A simple sentence has no clause, because, as you will remember, a clause is *a part of a sentence*, having a subject and a predicate; while a simple sentence is not *a part of* anything.

A compound sentence has two independent clauses. It may have more than two.

Now, we must have a name for sentences that have one independent and one dependent clause. Such sentences are called complex sentences.

Here are three complex sentences :

1. *Mary lost the bracelet which her uncle gave her.*
2. *Mary wept when she lost her bracelet.*
3. *Her uncle said that he would buy her another bracelet.*

Point out the dependent clause in each.

Name each of the dependent clauses.

Notice that a complex sentence has one independent clause, and one dependent clause. It may have more than one dependent clause, but never more than one independent clause.

Dependent clauses are always adjective clauses, adverb clauses, or noun clauses.

Name the clauses in each of the following sentences, and then state whether the sentences are simple, complex, or compound.

Diogenes was the name of a man who lived in Corinth. He loved to live a simple life. He wore old, torn clothes, and he went bare-foot. A tub was his dwelling place. One day he threw away his drinking cup, because he saw a boy drink from the hollow of his hand. King Alexander visited Diogenes, and he tried hard to get acquainted with him. Diogenes lay in the sunshine, when the king made his visit. He scarcely noticed the king, but the king was greatly interested in him. When the king was ready to depart, he offered to grant any favor which the wise man might desire. "Get out of my sunshine, then," said Diogenes.

LESSON LXXXVII.

SENTENCES CLASSIFIED.*

Sentences	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ Declarative.} \\ 2. \text{ Interrogative.} \\ 3. \text{ Imperative.} \\ 4. \text{ Exclamatory.} \end{array} \right\}$	according to meaning.
Sentences	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ Simple.} \\ 2. \text{ Complex.} \\ 3. \text{ Compound.} \end{array} \right\}$	according to form.
Clauses.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Independent.} \\ \text{Dependent.} \end{array} \right\}$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ Adjective clause.} \\ 2. \text{ Adverb clause.} \\ 3. \text{ Noun clause.} \end{array} \right\}$

Name the clauses in each of the following sentences :

A deer, who happened to be drinking in a clear lake, was impressed with the beauty of his horns, which he saw reflected in the water. (Three clauses.) At the same time he observed that his legs were very slender. (Two clauses.)

"I would be a fine creature if I did not have such a despicable set of spindle-shanks." (Two clauses.) Thus spoke the deer.

While he was talking to himself, he heard the noise of a pack of hounds, and away he bounded through the forest. (Three clauses.) While he was passing through a thicket, his horns became tangled in the bushes. (Two clauses.) He was held fast and the hounds tore him to pieces. (Two clauses.) The legs which he despised would have borne him away safely, if the horns which he was so proud of had not brought him to ruin. (Four clauses.) The deer was like many persons, who do not appreciate their advantages. (Two clauses.)

* The teacher should continue the subject of analysis of sentences by clauses until every pupil is familiar with every kind of sentence and every kind of clause. Care should be taken, however, to devise exercises containing sentences not too difficult.



LESSON LXXXVIII.

HOW TO WRITE DESCRIPTIONS OF BIRDS AND ANIMALS.

IN writing descriptions, we should follow some order, so that they may be pleasant to read, and easy to understand. The following order is perhaps as convenient as any:

1. Write of the appearance { Size,
Color,
Parts.
2. Write of its habits.
3. Write of its uses.
4. Write any interesting story or experience.

MODEL.

THE ROBIN.

The robin is about as large as the catbird or the thrush. It is about nine inches long from the point of its bill to the tip of its

tail, and when its wings are stretched out they measure, from tip to tip, about thirteen inches.

Its head and tail are nearly black, while the rest of its body is of a reddish brown color. Its breast has so much of a reddish cast, that the robin often goes by the name "Robin Red-breast." The under part of its body and tail are almost white. It has a yellow bill tipped with black, has brown eyes, and brownish legs and feet.

While robins are rearing their young, they go in pairs; but at other times they collect in flocks. They build their nests in trees, under porches, on fence-rails, in banks by the road-side, and in many other places. Their nests are made of mud, leaves, dried grasses, and similar materials. When the nest is finished, four or five green eggs are laid in it, and they are hatched in about two weeks. A pair of robins generally rears two broods in a season.

The robin is a very useful bird, because it eats the insects and worms that would injure the crops. Scientists tell us that each young robin while in the nest requires enough insects every day to weigh more than its own body. When we consider the number of bugs and worms a single pair of robins will eat and feed to their young in a single season, and remember also that they stay with us from early spring till late in the fall, we can form some notion of how useful they are.

A squirrel once undertook to steal the eggs from a robin's nest, but the old robins flew at him so fiercely, and pecked him so hard with their sharp bills, that he was glad enough to scamper away and let their nest alone.*

* TO THE TEACHER.—Exercises in description of this kind should be repeated again and again, and may be made the basis for many reviews.

Notice that this description has five paragraphs.

What is talked of in the first?

What two things are talked of in the second?

What is talked of in the third? What in the fourth? What in the fifth?

Describe a sparrow in the same way.

Suggestions for Additional Exercises in Composition.

I.

Many excellent exercises may be had by having the pupils commit to memory stanzas of poetry like the following, and then recite them, discuss their meaning, and reproduce the thought in their own words:

SONG OF THE STEAM.

Harness me down with your iron bands,
Be sure of your curb and rein,
For I scorn the power of your puny hands
As a tempest scorns a chain !
How I laughed, as I lay concealed from sight
For many a countless hour,
At the childish boast of human might
And the pride of human power.

I blow the bellows, I forge the steel
In all the shops of trade ;
I hammer the ore, I turn the wheel
Where my arms and strength are made ;
I manage the furnace, the mill, the mint,
I carry, I spin, I weave,
And all my doings I put into print,
On every Saturday eve.

—CUTTER.

THE QUARREL.

The Mountain and the Squirrel
Had a quarrel :
And the former called the latter " Little Prig,"
Bun replied—
" You are doubtless very big !
But all sorts of wind and weather
Must be taken in together
To make up a year and a sphere.
And I think it no disgrace
To occupy my place.
If I'm not so large as you
You are not so small as I,
And not half so spry.
I'll not deny you make
A very pretty squirrel track.
Talents differ ; all is well and wisely put.
If I cannot carry forests on my back
Neither can you crack a nut."

—EMERSON.

II.

Dictation exercises to drill the pupil in the use of capital letters, in punctuation, in making paragraphs, in spelling, penmanship, etc., are valuable, and can be taken from almost any reader or child's story book or paper.

III.

Stories for reproduction are also useful, but have been (and are likely to be) used too much ; that is, to such an extent as to crowd out other, and perhaps more valuable, exercises. Fables like the following may be used :

THREE WISHES.

An old man and his wife lived in a hut in the woods, where they earned their living by gathering sticks. One night as they sat grumbling over their hard lot a fairy appeared to them and said: "Fret no more, you may have three wishes granted you. Ask whatever you please." The old people were delighted, and began to plan as to what wealth they should have. The old woman stooped to rake the fire, and said unthinkingly "What fine coals! I wish I had a yard of pudding to fry there." No sooner said than down tumbled a square of pudding upon the coals. "You old goose!" shouted her husband, "to waste that wish! I'm sure I wish the pudding was on your nose." Up it flew and fixed itself there. They had now but one wish left. All they could do was to wish the pudding off again. So their wishes left them as before, only that they were wiser.

IV.

Many exercises in letter-writing may be used. This kind of composition is generally much neglected. In addition to its value as a means of improving expression, it is of great practical use to the students. Good letter-writers are scarce: and yet who does not need to write letters? (See Lesson XXI.)

V.

Expanding proverbs into paragraphs to show their meaning and application is also a valuable exercise.

MODEL.**"STRIKE WHILE THE IRON IS HOT."**

This proverb is evidently drawn from the experience of the blacksmith. When he wants to shape a piece of iron, he puts it in his fire and makes it red-hot; then with a few quick blows of his hammer he can forge it into a bolt, a horseshoe, or whatever he desires. But if

he is dilatory and lets the iron cool after taking it out of the fire, all his blows are vain; he has lost the opportunity.

There is another proverb like this in meaning, which probably first came from some farmer—"Make hay while the sun shines." When a good hay-day comes, the thrifty farmer always improves it; he will not take the chance of to-morrow's being wet. A few rainy days may damage his crop; so, while the weather is good, he gets his hay in.

These two proverbs teach us that we must improve our opportunities, while circumstances are favorable. We must not put things off, as so many are tempted to do, to their great injury. Shakespeare says,

"There is a tide in the affairs of men,

Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune ;"

but if we do not take it at the flood, it will soon ebb, and we shall find to our sorrow that we are too late. The man who has a good business, and neglects it till it gradually leaves him, does not make hay while the sun shines. The boy who has the opportunity of receiving a good education, and fails to improve it, does not strike while the iron is hot,—and for him it never gets hot again.

QUACKENBOS.

Other proverbs that may be expanded :

1. The early bird catches the worm.
2. An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure.
3. Take care of the cents, and the dollars will take care of themselves.
4. A word to the wise is sufficient.
5. A cat in mittens catches no mice.
6. A new broom sweeps clean.
7. Every cloud has a silver lining.
8. A stitch in time saves nine.
9. Birds of a feather flock together.
10. Least said is soonest mended.

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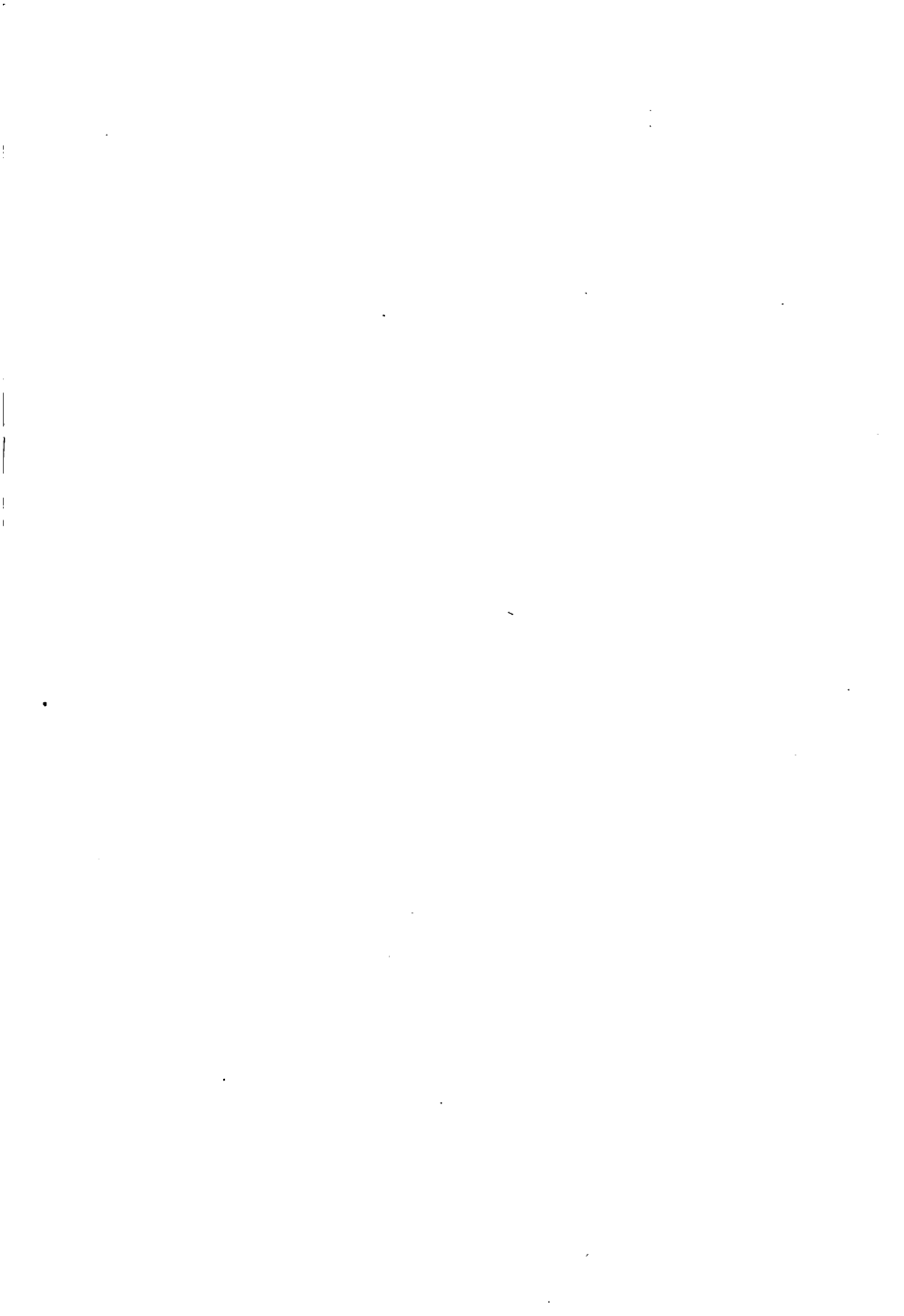
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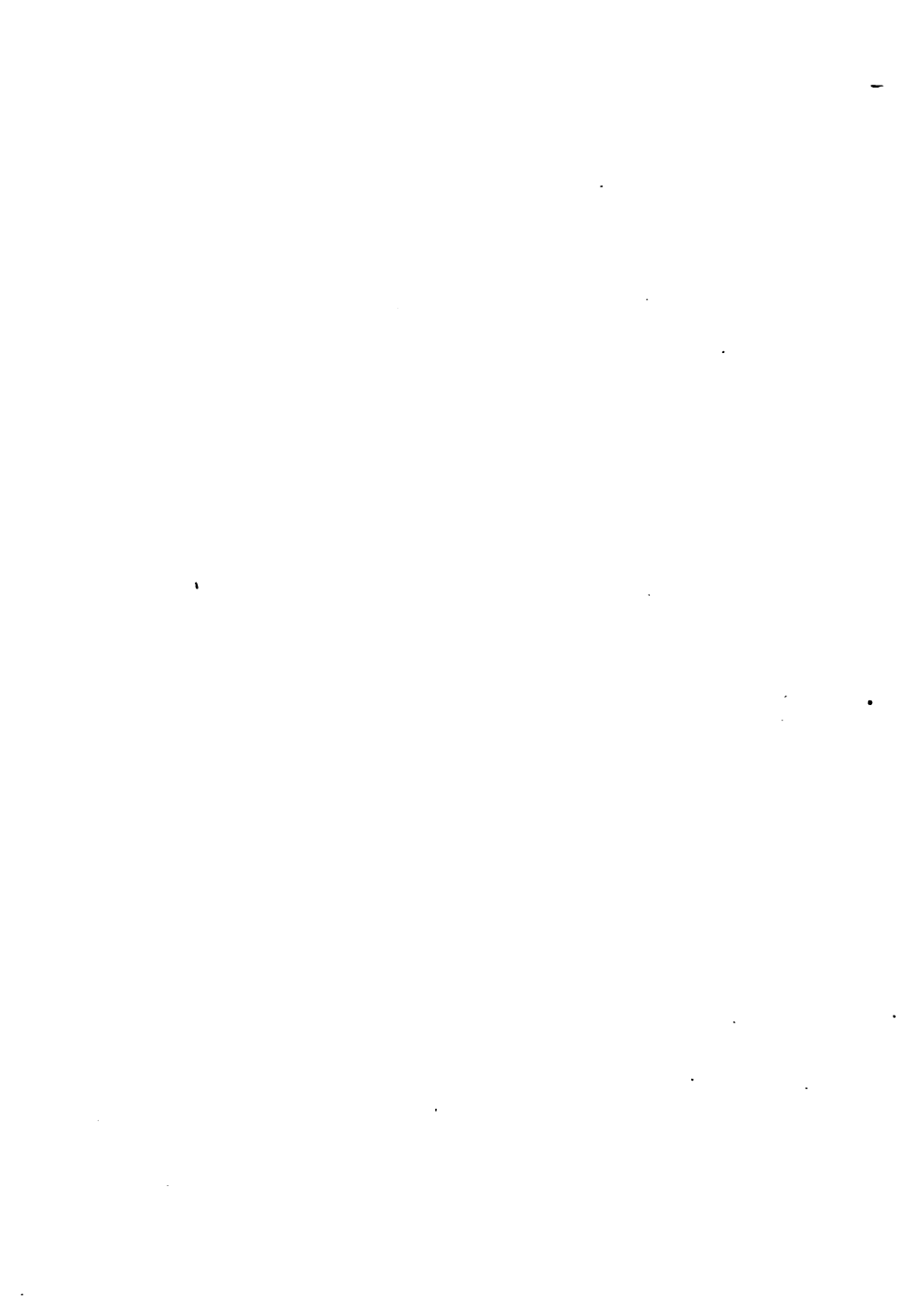
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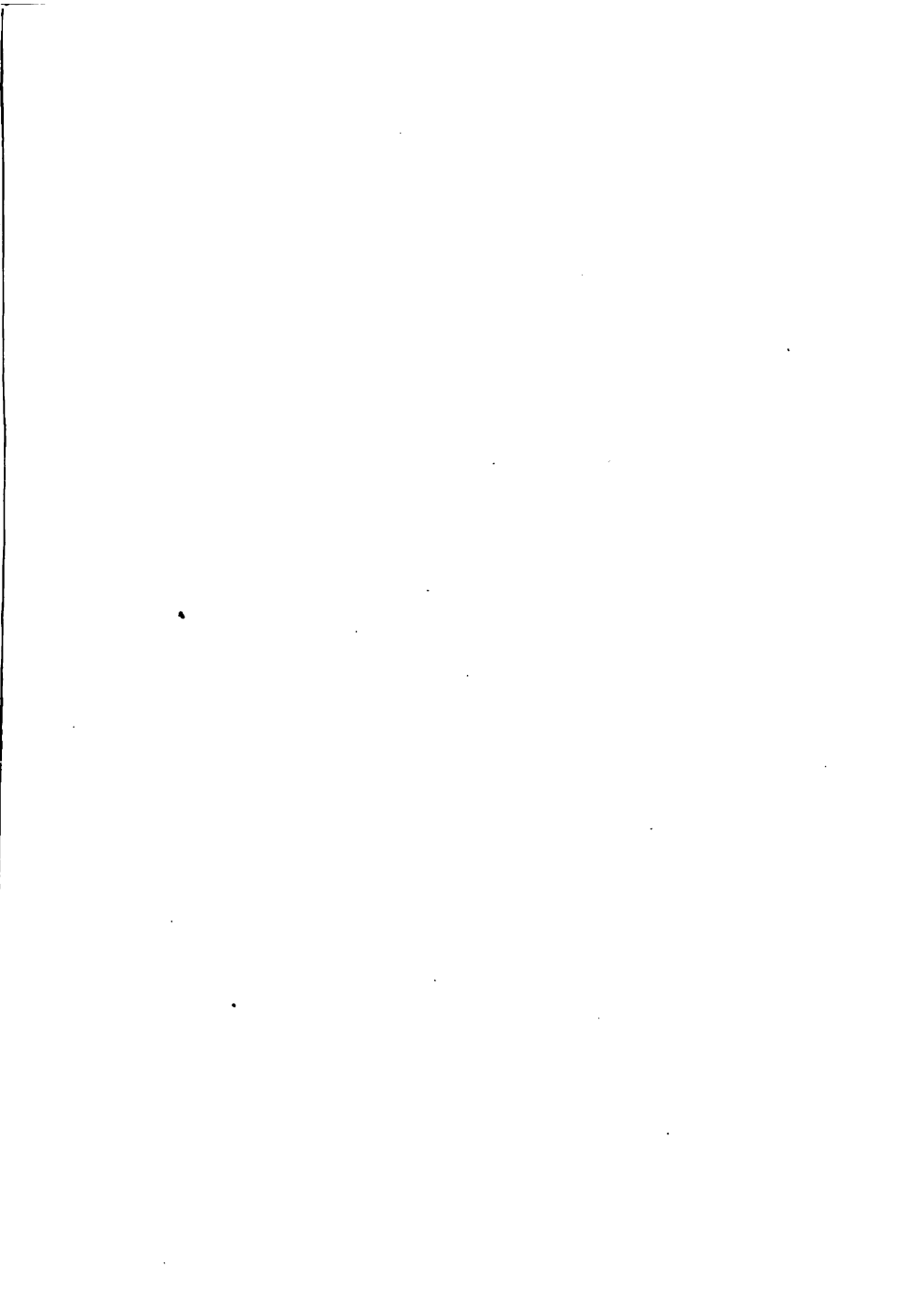
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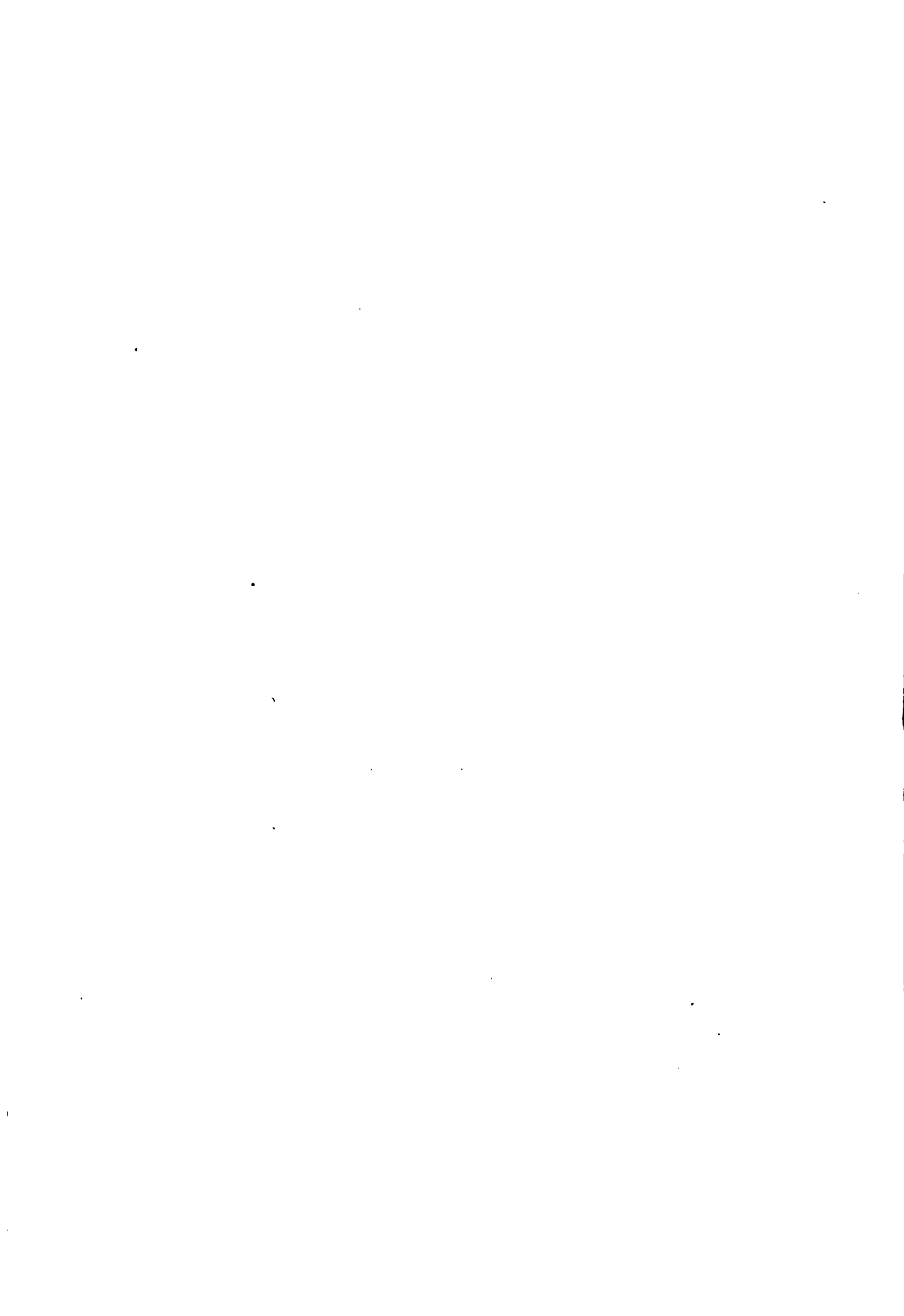


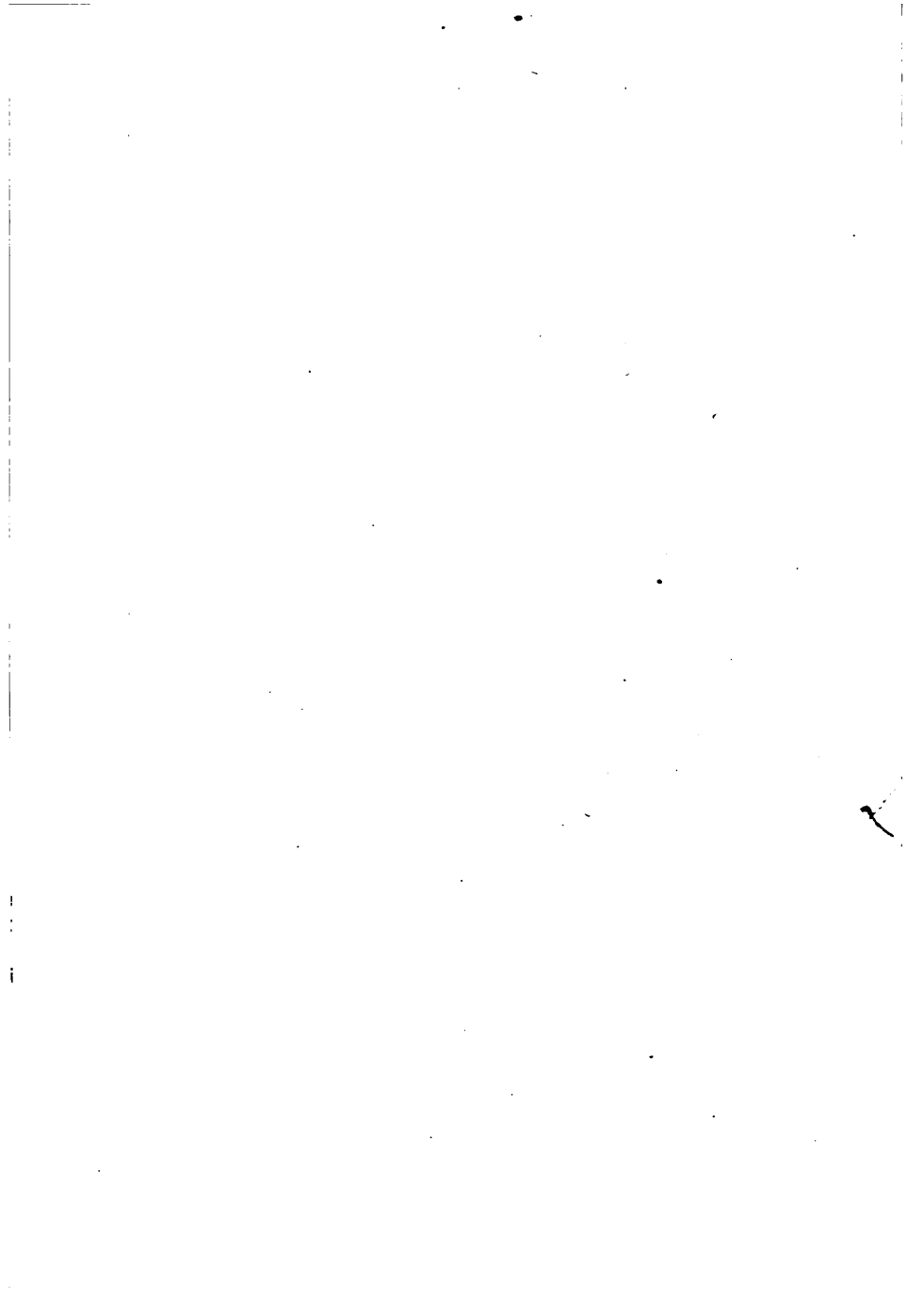












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